

Child and Family Welfare

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(Continued on inside back cover)

NEW STAFF APPOINTMENT, CANADIAN WELFARE COUNCIL

The Canadian Welfare Council announces the appointment to its staff as secretary of the Division on Maternal and Child Hygiene, of Miss Margaret Fyvie Helen Young, R.N., B.A.Sc., M.A., of Victoria, B.C.

Miss Young enters upon her new responsibilities qualified with high academic honours and valued practical experience. With a continuous record of honour standing in the elementary and secondary schools of Victoria, she entered the University of British Columbia in 1926 and graduated in 1931, with the degree of Bachelor of Applied Science in Nursing, winning the University Scholarship at the end of her second year, the Vancouver Women's Canadian Club Scholarship in Nursing and Health at the end of her fourth year, and the Provincial Board of Health prize in Public Health Nursing upon graduation.

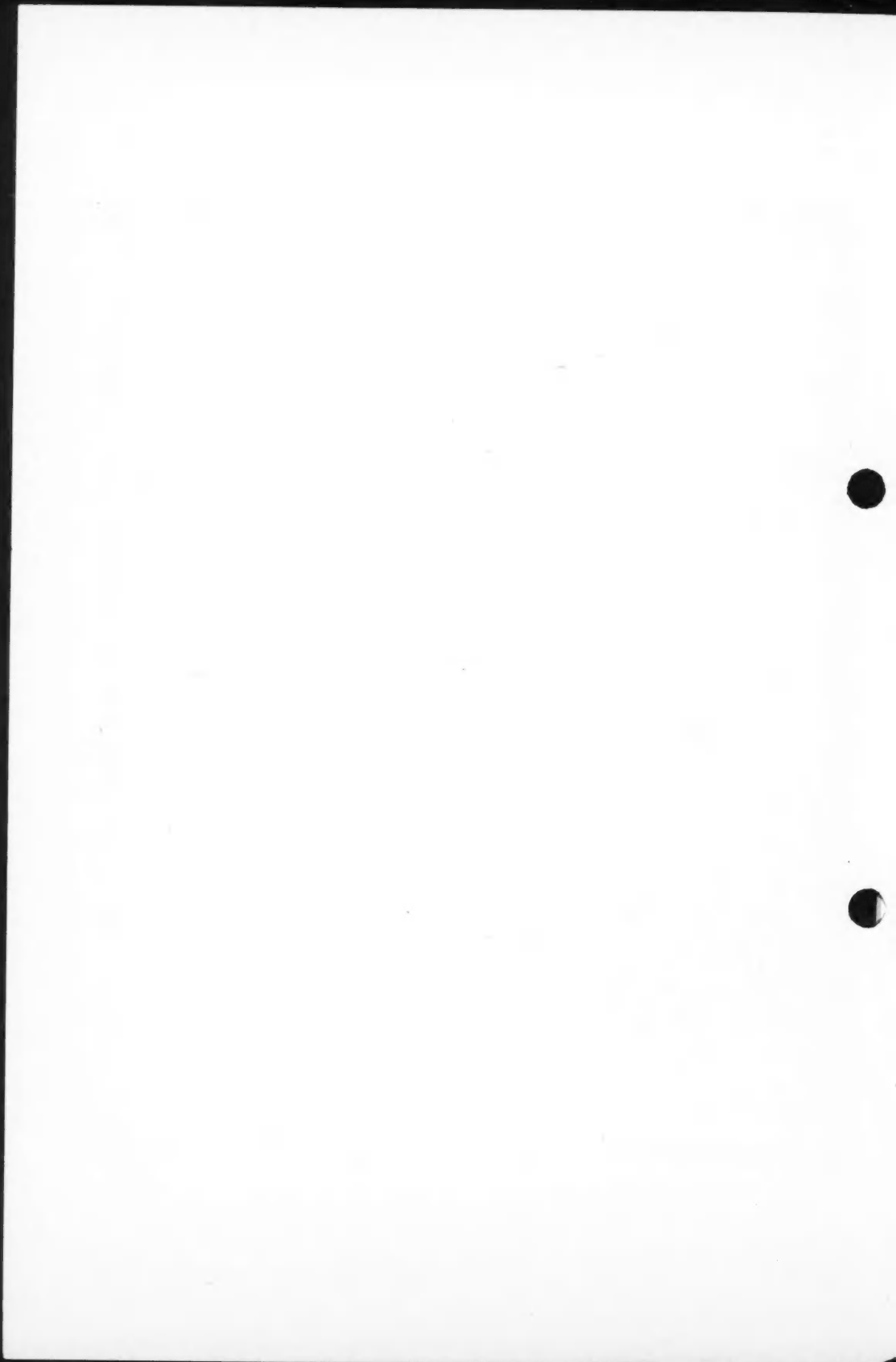
She passed her examination for her Registered Nurses' Certificate in 1930, with high honours in all subjects, and in May 1931 was appointed to the staff of the Cowichan Health Centre at Duncan, B.C. She was promoted to the position of Supervisor in 1934, and in the same year was awarded a fellowship by the Rockefeller Foundation. From September 1934 to June 1935, she attended Teachers' College, Columbia University, receiving her M.A. degree in the field of Supervision in Public Health Nursing. Three months were then spent in field observation work including the East Harlem Nursing and Health Service, and community health or nursing education services in Boston, New York, Baltimore, Washington, Minnesota and Seattle. Recently, Miss Young has been making a special study of the North Vancouver Health Unit, directed by Dr. Greg. Amyot, from which piece of work she comes directly to the Canadian Welfare Council.

Council House, Ottawa.
January, 1936.





*We mourn with the Empire the passing of our beloved
Sovereign, King George the Fifth*



Child and Family Welfare

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No. 5

MAN AND HIS LEISURE

An address by His Excellency, the Governor-General, to the Canadian Club of Toronto, reprinted in this Bulletin by gracious permission of His Excellency.

IN casting about for a subject, it occurred to me that I might say a few words to you on a very practical question, which concerns not only the pleasures of life, but also the effectiveness of our work. I presume that I am addressing an audience which is chiefly composed of business men in the larger sense of the word. Well, for nearly a quarter of a century I, also, was engaged in business. There comes a time to everyone who, like myself, in Sir Walter Scott's phrase, has "reached the other side of the hill," when he is inclined to generalize from his own experience. I have led what I suppose might be called a busy life, and I can honestly say I have thoroughly enjoyed it. But I have always had an inordinate appetite for leisure, and a profound belief in its value. So to-day I would offer you, most respectfully, a few reflections on the employment of those seasons when our professional harness is unloosed, and we are turned out to grass.

Importance of the "Margins of Life"

My topic, if you will permit me, is the practical importance of the margins of life, the residuum which is left to us when we have completed the tasks which earn us our daily bread. I am not a Scotsman and an elder of the Scottish Church for nothing; so I am going to take a text, and it shall be from the Book of Ecclesiasticus: "The wisdom of the learned man cometh by opportunity of leisure; and he that hath little business shall become wise." After the fashion of the old type of Scottish minister, I would add that I am especially concerned with the first clause of the verse, for I do not think the second clause is equally sound: "Wisdom cometh by opportunity of leisure."

This is an immense subject, and I want to limit myself to one practical aspect of it. There are many aspects. For example, there is the sociological and economic side. We are all agreed that

one of the chief objects of education is to enrich our leisure and that the policy of shorter hours of work carries with it the obligation to enable the worker to employ his spare time worthily. Today we are witnessing the triumph of the machine, through which the monotonous, exacting manual toil of the past is to a large extent done away with. A mechanized world means, in the long run, a very drastic reconstruction of industry, under which labour may be rationed with fewer working hours, and the enforced leisure thus created will have to be filled up with new employments and new interests. There are some—and I strongly sympathize with them—who dream of a world where a man will have comparatively few hours of regular work, and the rest of the day he will be craftsman or farmer, producing the necessities, and some of the luxuries, of his life. The machine may end by playing the part which slave labour played in the old Greek world, and be the basis of a richer and more civilized life for all.

The Cultural Side of Leisure

Then there is the cultural side of leisure. If we are to live a full and worthy life we cannot live only for our professions. We are human beings as well as doctors, accountants, lawyers and engineers and we have to get satisfaction out of life as well as a living. If we are wise, we will preserve intellectual interests wider than our actual vocations, things which keep the mind alive and keep us in touch with other aspects of the world. There is the aspect, for example, which we reach through books and the various forms of art. There is the aspect which we reach through a love of wild nature, and you in Canada have magnificent chances for that. There is the aspect which we reach through sport. Sir Andrew Aguecheek, you remember, in *Twelfth Night*, complained that to acquire foreign tongues you must give up time which might have been devoted to bear-baiting. We dare not minimise the importance of what we might call the bear-baiting side of life. All these varied interests keep a man young. The late Lord Bryce was the most astonishing example I have ever known of the power of engrossing hobbies to preserve youth. I remember him telling me, when he was well over eighty, with the glee of a boy, that he was getting enormous pleasure in planning out a new life of Justinian, which he proposed to write. And if you went for a walk with him, even in his last years, his interest in everything he saw and heard was like that of a child on holiday.

Its Practical Importance

But I am going to limit my subject to the sternly practical. My argument is that leisure—rightly used leisure—is essential to

the success of our professional work itself. This applies, I think, to every calling I know, to every learned or skilled profession, and to every branch of commerce or industry. The secret of success is to do a job efficiently with the minimum of labour. This does not mean the ordinary labour-saving appliances, which often complicate work, but it does mean preliminary thought and reflection. Most jobs are done with an absurd waste of labour. Let me give you an example from a subject about which I once knew a little—military intelligence. When the Great War began, most people thought the proper way to obtain a surprise was by an immense and elaborate secretiveness in every detail, even the smallest. At first our own authorities carried this to a ridiculous length, while Germany carried it still further, with the result that there was a Herculean effort after secrecy, which meant the employment of thousands of officials and the expenditure of vast sums of money. It failed, as it was bound to fail. Then, very slowly, we learned our folly and made some attempt to find out what we really wanted. For the true art of secrecy is to be so open about ninety-nine per cent of your subject that the remaining one per cent is the more easily hidden, because its existence is unrealised. Before the close of the war we used to let the enemy have an enormous amount of true information about things which did not matter, and thereby concealed the better the small fraction which mattered everything.

Most of us are apt to have a feeling at the back of our heads that the more work we put into a thing, the better we shall do it. I believe that this idea originally arose from Puritan theology, which took a grave view of life, and considered that it should be divided strictly between work and devotional exercises. The spirit is perpetuated in our hymns—"Give every flying minute something to keep in store,"—a very sensible piece of advice if you interpret the "something" with reasonable generosity. But the fact is that you can easily put too much work into a job; what you cannot put too much of, is intelligence. Undue emphasis upon solid plodding work and not enough upon fruitful leisure, means that a task does not get sufficient preliminary preparation and therefore our efforts may be largely wasted.

Leisure Helps One to See Round One's Task

To avoid waste and unnecessary toil, to give our work the maximum of effort, we must be able to see round our task. This cannot be done while we are engaged in its minutiae. It can only properly be done when the mind is free, in its hours of leisure. Then only can we get a proper view-point and the right perspective. Leisure is as essential for true efficiency as is the long spying of the ground when you are hunting, before you begin your stalk.

Let me take one or two examples from different callings. I will begin with business. The staple of nearly every business is, of course, a mass of detailed duties which must be fulfilled, and which require no special qualifications except industry and experience. Now and then comes the need for a critical decision, and now and then the need for a synoptic view of the prospect. But the ordinary work may correctly be described as routine. The danger is that we allow the routine element to get the upper hand, and refuse to consider the shape of the wood, or even of the trees, because of our absorption with the undergrowth. We have seen the consequences of this in Britain since the war. Too many business men did not realize that world conditions had changed, and were content to plod in the old ways. They may have redoubled their energy in their detailed work, but they did not look around them until it was too late, and the time for reconstruction and readjustment was gone, and they found themselves left with a machine which was out of all relation to current needs.

America before 1929 was an interesting case. Many of my younger American friends had been given an education for business, to which I think there is no parallel elsewhere; an education in the humanities, in law, and an experience of foreign countries, in addition to the technique of their special calling. But since business was America's pet vocation, it became to many a sacred thing, the only profession for sane people, an emotion, a delight, something into which the old fervour of New England Puritanism had gone. I remember how I used to find my business friends in a fury of concentration. Their office hours were inordinately long, and out of office hours business followed them into private life. I was rather worried about them, in spite of their optimism and self-confidence, for it did not seem to me that they could have any leisure to look around.

Then one day, I remember, I was the guest of a very famous business man, whose name is a household word throughout the globe. I found that he seemed to be possessed of infinite leisure. I mentioned to him my recent experience, and I had the temerity to express my fears.

"You are right," he said, "our boys have got hold of the wrong end of the stick, and presently they are going to pay for it. As for me, I should regard myself as a failure if I went to my office for more than a few hours in the day, or more than five days in the week. I go down there, call up one or two people, have a conference with my departmental heads, and go home."

"What do you do at home?" I asked.

"I sit in the garden," he said, "or I go fishing. And I think. I get a whale of a lot of thinking done. It is thinking that matters."

Let us turn to other professions. Soldiering. Well, there is no question of the importance of this background of leisure in the life of a great soldier, especially in these days when battles are won in the brain before they are won in the field. A general simply dare not allow his mind to be confused by details. He must be able to sit back from the melee and preserve, in the fever of the campaign, an exact perspective. Take the profession of the law. One of the merits of the law is that there is a good deal of compulsory leisure, for the courts have a lovable practice of not sitting continuously. So a lawyer has a special opportunity of seeing round his subject and of setting it in proper relation to human life. If you will study legal history you will admit, I think, that the greatest lawyers have nearly always been men of wide interests, and that these interests have usually contributed to the mastery of their chief subject. Their leisure, their margin of life, has been so used as to contribute incalculably to their efficiency in their chosen calling.

The case is still stronger with the statesman. The statesman's job is not one aspect of the life of the nation, but all of them, and unless he has strong interests outside the details of politics, he will be an imperfect master even of these details. He, of all men, must cultivate a fruitful leisure if he is to be in command of his task. I will take as a notable instance the late Lord Balfour. To him, nothing that was human came amiss. He was deeply interested in art, music, literature and philosophy, and was indeed, by the lay standard, a competent scientist, and, by any standard, a distinguished philosopher. He loved human companionship, and seemed to be able to extract something intelligible and valuable from the dullest companion. I know that he always made my own halting utterances sound respectable. He never lost himself in detail; he never lost his sense of proportion; he employed his leisure—and he insisted upon a great deal of leisure—to think, which is by no means a common practice among politicians.

I remember once talking to a very wise trade union leader and he said a thing that impressed me. He said that it was a man's business "always to keep on the top of his job." I like that phrase. To keep on the top of your job you must be outside it and not mixed up too much with it. You must be able, now and then, to look right round it, and you can only do that if you have leisure.

Leisure Necessary to Highest Objectives of Living

I would add one more to these random observations, and this is a graver reflection. In the old days people had a phrase about a

man's "making his soul." You retired from politics, or business, or soldiering, or whatever was your profession, and went into retreat before you died, in order to possess your soul, to settle accounts with life and make your peace with Heaven. We do not talk quite like that today, and yet the duty is still imperative. The only difference is that we now realize that such a task is not to be performed only in seclusion in the twilight of life. It is a process which should be going on all your days.

Someone once said that every man should be "lonely at heart." That is not so easy in a bustling world. Too much of our time is spent on the treadmill, without vision and perspective in our work, and with a most intolerable clatter in our ears. But sometimes we must get away from the din and discover ourselves. We need seasons of solitude with ourselves, for we must all be solitary in the great crises of life, and we must all be alone at death. That is the greatest of the fruits of leisure, the chance to discover our souls, the opportunity of that "rest and returning" which, according to the prophet, should be our strength.

* * *

THE SOCIAL WORKER AND SOCIAL ACTION*

PORTER R. LEE

Director, New York School of Social Work

IN this discussion, I am taking the term "social action" to include any effort designed to promote social welfare outside the direct and indirect media represented by our service agencies, national organizations, etc. Social action seems to suggest efforts directed towards changes in law or social structure or towards the initiation of new movements for the modification of current social practices. Promotion of the idea of crime prevention as a public obligation is social action. Activity in behalf of a political party—republican, democrat, socialist, communist or labor—when undertaken in the belief that the party's success would result in a greater measure of social welfare is social action. The organization of special interest groups to achieve through the class struggle a shift in the control of economic power, with the same belief behind it, is social action. Participation in movements to achieve social security or the abolition of child labor by legislation is social action. Safety campaigns and the promotion of the cooperative movement are social action.

* A paper presented at The New York State Conference on Social Work, Buffalo, October 21st to 25th, and printed in "The Family" December, 1935.

Social Action Essential to Progress

The continuous need for social action is probably a phase of the process of growth in any society. Recognition of it sometimes leads to fantastic and irrational proposals for change and is sometimes the starting point for statesmanlike planning. At critical periods like the present we are likely to have both in doses of assorted size and virulence. As professional persons, I take it, we should be concerned with statesmanlike planning and that assumption ought to clarify somewhat the problem of the social worker's participation.

Statesmanlike planning for social action certainly involves the use of all the varied forms of competence that society can command. On this ground it becomes apparent that professional social workers (and on precisely the same ground the members of other professional and vocational groups) have an obligation to engage in social action and that it is essential to any balanced progress in our social life that they do so. Any working group having a continuous and distinctive experience in the administration of programs designed to provide commodities, service, protection or opportunity has a potential contribution to sound social action which can be made by no other group. The problem of determining whether the social worker has obligation or responsibility in the field of social action seems to me no problem at all. He has both the obligation and the responsibility that goes with it. I believe this because I believe some commonly held objectives in civilized life, achievable only through social action, cannot be achieved at all without the distinctive professional contribution of the social worker. Our problem is rather to determine the nature of that contribution and the terms on which it can be made. In this discussion, owing to the limitations of time, I shall be less concerned with the nature of our contribution than with the terms on which it can be made.

In discussing the terms or conditions which should or will determine the participation of the social worker in social action I should like to distinguish between professional factors and what we might call the emotional milieu which affects the operation of professional factors.

The Professional Factor

Participation in social action may be analyzed as presenting two types of activity; leadership or advocacy on the one hand and support on the other. This may seem a distinction too finely drawn to have practical significance but I do not believe it is. To establish its significance we need to make some more distinctions.

The participation of the individual social worker in social action is likely to be governed by the following: his sense of profes-

sional competence, his consciousness of intellectual conviction in areas where he lacks technical competence and his temperamental selection of interests. Leadership and advocacy seem to me roles for which competence with respect to the matter at issue is an indispensable qualification. Neither conviction without competence nor temperamental interest justifies anyone in assuming them: and we might add that the tendency to do so is a menace to sound social planning.

Leadership and advocacy in social action on issues with respect to which one is professionally competent are direct authentic professional activities. The social worker can play those roles by right of his professional qualifications, qualifications essential to the formulation of a social program and qualifications possessed by no other group. In much of our current discussion any such conception of the role of the social worker in social action has seemed more restrictive than many of us have been willing to accept. The feeling is growing, however, that our sense of restriction under this conception may be due less to its fettering effect than to our unreadiness or inability to make good on our own assumptions of competence. We have been a long time building our knowledge and developing our skill. It is all there in our experience, in our files, and in the increasingly well-disciplined minds which we bring to daily practice. But it has never really been sorted out, arranged, formulated and interpreted so that when the crises of social action arise it is readily accessible to ourselves, to say nothing of the laymen and experts outside our ranks whose attitudes, proposals and activities in the field of social action we think could with profit to society be influenced by what we have learned.

The Sphere of Professional Competence

Nevertheless we do have competence of a distinctive character. It gives us what I believe to be our only justification for assuming as professional social workers the roles of leadership and advocacy in social action—or in any other field. I am speaking of course of the profession as a whole and of the professional qualifications which training and experience develop. Plenty of our members have added to these other training and experience that add scope to their professional competence. There may be social workers who are expert on taxation, on collectivism, on constitutional law, on the proposal to make the production and distribution of milk a public utility—but they did not become expert in these matters as a result of their training and experience as social workers. Unless he has had other training I do not see how any social worker could assume the role of leader or advocate in these legitimate fields of

social action without risk both to these programs and to the status of social work.

The nature of social work, however, brings its practitioners into situations where they have to take responsible action which is beyond their technical competence. In such situations they cannot avoid reaching convictions and lending support, though they may well, if they are professionally honest, beware of assuming leadership or advocacy. Their role here seems to me one of support rather than of leadership.

With respect to all kinds of issues, vital to social work, the problem of participation arises. We can't escape taking sides in political campaigns, in controversial legislation, in the birth control movement, with respect to the role of the federal government in social welfare. Many of these have fundamental aspects beyond our professional competence but well within our professional interest. Insofar as we can tell which is which, I think our own sense of competence should determine the nature of our participation, whether it is to be leadership and advocacy or much less aggressive support. If we can't tell which is which, I think genuine competence would say that the greater service to social work lay in keeping out of leadership and avoiding advocacy.

How does temperamental interest affect the nature of the social worker's participation in social action? There is probably as great a diversity of temperament in social workers as there is in physicians, fiction readers, college professors and those who eat cereal for breakfast. It is usually not accident that turns some of us to social case work, some to the promotion of legislation, some to group work and some to the children's field, some to research, some to the field of health. We may give an intellectual acceptance to all of these and others, as important and essential parts of our professional milieu, but one's capacity for the absorbing and dynamic interest which is indispensable for effectual participation cannot possibly run to the whole subject matter of social work, to all of its fields or to all of its legitimate concerns in the area of social action. For all of us some concentration is inevitable because of sheer temperamental limitations to say nothing of efficiency. The total of one's committee and organizational memberships is no evidence whatever of one's usefulness or the versatility of one's competence, but may well be evidence of his inadequacy as a social worker. It seems less important to me that any one social worker be identified with this or that movement, however high they may rank in importance, than that his participation in social movements be guided by his sense of professional competence and his ability to bring to them the dynamic power of his temperamental interest as well as his trained capacity.

Some Emotional Factors

Thus far I have been trying to sketch the case for the participation of the social worker in social action through leadership, in matters where he is professionally competent, and through support, where he recognizes a professional stake and a conviction, but which involve consideration beyond his competence. Turning to the actual problem of participation we find that procedure is not nearly as simple as this would suggest. Competence is not easily defined, inertia is not easily disturbed and enthusiasm without knowledge is not easily restrained. And yet in the face of issues, however precipitated, forces pro and forces con struggle in the effort to bring social workers in or to keep social workers out. There is at times both bustling activity and indecisiveness with respect to such issues both of which are attributable to intellectual fog when clear vision is needed. When one is quite honestly unable to find his way rationally through an issue and is at the same time subject to the pressure of self-respect or propaganda the emotional urge to activity as a substitute for thought or to indecisiveness as an ethical sanction for either ignorance or incapacity is frequently too strong to be resisted. On the one hand are those who believe that anything would be better than what we have now and on the other are those who would like something different but do not know what. In his recent book Bertrand Russell writes that "the world is suffering from intolerance and bigotry, and from the belief that vigorous action is admirable even when misguided." The temptation to indulge in vigorous action is strong when one has exhausted the power of his own competence without finding within it the solution to grave social and economic problems. I see no reason why, at such a point, the social worker should not select from among the far-flung proposals for economic readjustment which others more competent or less timorous than he are promulgating and lend to those he selects his whole-hearted support if he has an intellectual conviction about them and finds them congenial to his temperamental interest. I cannot see, however, that he can base his participation in such movements upon his professional competence as a social worker. The obligation of the professional social worker as such to engage in social action through advocacy does not in my judgment run to matters beyond his professional competence and other matters about which he has a strong intellectual conviction based upon the judgment of others whose competence he has reason to trust. Advocacy and support of programs of social action, the full implications of which one has not thought through, may be an understandable human escape from the agony of indecision at times of crises but it is hardly evidence of a high sense of professional responsibility.

This is not to dignify either inaction or indecisiveness. It is much more a challenge to social workers for commitment to the degree of intellectual effort needed to broaden and reinforce their own competence.

The Effect on Service Programmes

Another problem which becomes complicated by emotional factors is the effect upon our current service programs when social workers become preoccupied with issues in the field of social action. At the present time we are seeing in a good many different directions an emphasis upon the self-interest of social workers as a major professional preoccupation. Boards of directors here and there frown upon such preoccupation and employees of social agencies begin to organize to protect their economic interests. It is also suggested at least by implication that social workers ought to identify themselves with labor in order to secure a transfer in the control of economic power to the labor group. These various developments are resented or applauded by social workers chiefly because of the social worker's self-interest. I have no quarrel with any of them and believe firmly that self-interest is not only biologically inevitable but ethically justifiable as a motivation even for a social worker. I would defend vigorously the right of any group to protect its own interests as they see them by almost any means they choose although I am by nature a pacifist and have little faith in the enduring value of results secured by force.

My concern here is that we already have some evidence that the effort to promote the self-interest of social workers in such ways as workers' organizations or insistence upon the right to follow one's own judgment in the support of measures in the field of social action is embarrassing those service programs for which we are professionally responsible. In spite of the impressive indictment that can be made of our economic system and its responsibility for many of our social ills I still think that the major responsibility of the professional social worker is the service programs of social work and leadership in those forms of social action which are within his professional competence. I believe we are right in spite of public opposition to make our legitimate professional contribution to social action and I believe that workers' organizations have an important contribution to make to the administration of social work. I also believe that the furtherance of these two interests can, if we are inept in our choice of means and time and emphasis, seriously embarrass our service programs.

It is quite true that social workers, ready to make their natural and entirely valid contribution to social action, have at times been

embarrassed and checked by conservative donors and boards of directors who have disapproved of what is known in popular jargon as "radical tendencies." It may be added that others have never been so restricted. But it might just as well be recognized that at the present time the efforts of many social workers to promote justice and human well-being are often quite as much embarrassed by the unintelligent intrusive methods of radical propaganda as ever they have been by the equally unintelligent restrictions of conservative donors and boards of directors.

The Spread of Intolerance

As a final complication in any rational approach to the participation of the social worker in social action we have to consider the rapid and, to me, deplorable spread of intolerance. To quote Bertrand Russell again "What is needed in our very complex modern society is calm consideration, with readiness to call dogmas in question and freedom of mind to do justice to the most diverse points of view."

Intolerance and bigotry are not conducive to calm consideration. I am especially concerned here with intolerance within our own professional group. A passionate devotion to the cause in which one believes is entirely understandable. Equally understandable is the tendency to rate high in importance as compared with other matters, the enterprise, the field of work, the cause to which one is committed. As has already been pointed out, however, temperamental interests differ, judgments differ and in the present state of our ignorance regarding human nature and human society it is neither scientific nor sensible, to say nothing of intellectual honesty, to assert that any one route to social salvation is the one authentic way. Neither is it reasonable to expect that those whose genius or capacity runs more sure-footedly through administrative responsibility than through speculative or philosophic thought should be able to master the intellectual complexities of sweeping programs of social reform. I do not believe that any social worker can afford to be apathetic towards the need for fundamental social readjustments in this country but plenty of them, conscious of no competence whatever in such matters, are sticking to more direct professional responsibilities not through apathy but through a sense of responsibility quite as high as that which drives others into the field of social action. The intolerance which attempts to read for everybody a categorical "must" into every dogma, every program in which one himself believes, assumes a simplicity in the problem of human life and social organization which as yet does not exist. At the present time it seems to me more important

that we preserve complete "freedom of mind to do justice to the most diverse points of view" than that we assume an ability to develop any one point of view which can or should demand the same allegiance from all of us. This is not a mere assertion of the importance of intellectual freedom and freedom of speech. It is the assertion rather that diversity in point of view and in method is in itself an indispensable constructive mode of progress.

Social Action limited by "Emotional Milieu"

I have endeavored in this paper to distinguish two separate realities that at the present time govern the relationship of the social worker to social action. One is the reality of the social worker's normal legitimate professional contribution to social action. The other is the reality of the emotional milieu in which self-interest, drives, prejudice, bigotry and the will to be blind, whether they are manifested by the social worker or the general public, not only limit the efficiency of his participation in social action but menace the efficiency of all of his service programs. This emotional milieu is always with us in social life but its power and influence become especially crippling—and perhaps especially energizing—at a time of great social upheaval like the present. Human beings are prone to these emotional excesses—and social workers are human beings. Nevertheless a profession, whatever the defects of its practitioners, is by its very nature a demonstration of the capacity to think rationally, to work ethically and to control the emotional factor in judgment—and social work is a profession.

* * *

THE UNATTACHED WOMAN IN CANADA* WHO SHE IS AND SOME OF HER PROBLEMS

RUTH LOW

Executive Secretary, Social Service and International Department,
Y.W.C.A., Toronto.

THOUGH the unattached woman has been a factor in Canadian life for the past twenty or twenty-five years, we needed a financial breakdown to bring this fact to the mind of the public. When a girl or woman left home, or was left without family and took her place in factory, shop, school, hospital or office, she was not thought of as a member of a group in society. Even sociologists failed to recognize, very clearly, this ever-enlarging section of social grouping, though the woman away from home or even without such

* Paper presented at The National Conference of Social Work, Montreal, June 1935, to the National Travellers Aid Society of the United States.

distant attachments, has been gradually growing in numbers since the war. Now she is known by the hundreds in each of our larger cities across the Dominion, since to these centres of trade and industry the emancipated woman flocked to earn a living.

Thus the clogging of the wheels of commerce has been greatly responsible for the present desire to know more about this unattached person and her problems, quite peculiar to herself. When she had some money and some opportunity to work even as a casual worker, we left her blissfully to herself, to plan her own life, secure her own backing and acquire whatever friends she might. But the present unemployment situation forces her to the doorstep of social agencies. Then in our usual way of seeking for a cause for every effect, the cry goes up from social workers, "Who is this unattached woman? Where has she come from? Why is she so hard to deal with?" And to our rather slow minds comes the knowledge that this is indeed a different riddle to solve. The whole approach, through knowing this woman, and the technique needed to deal with her, problem or no problem, are only now in the making.

Mark you, that in the great majority of cases she was *forced* to the social organization. Her even slight taste of independence, coupled with a woman's natural reserve, usually made grave necessity and actual want her only dictators in this. The world had never known her business before, so the mere hint that even a few understanding strangers should learn this proved a disagreeable pill to swallow. Thus it happened that from 1930 to 1933, we had acquired little workable knowledge of this group in society.

This is not a statistical survey, nor an actual piece of scientific research, but rather the findings of a person who is primarily interested in people and women in particular. This contains no psychological charts on reaction times or graphs showing increase or decrease of self-supporting power. This is a study any interested student of sociology might make—a somewhat sketchy picture of the unattached woman as she is known in Canada.

Let us remind ourselves that this is one of the "baby" groups of society. Consciousness of its own existence has hardly appeared. Of a truth there has been a very epidemic of organizing, but that usually has been in the form of service, bridge or study clubs—a rather exclusive grouping. The bachelor girl has been too much an *individual* to turn easily to losing herself in the mass life.

Who She Is in Canada

Now, as findings from large centres have formulated themselves into some general facts, we secure this outline of the unattached woman. We see her in her social, economic, age and nationality

groupings. We see her in plenty and in want, as she struggles with insecurity of many kinds—economic, physical and sexual, mental and spiritual.

Social Strata

This woman, without home ties in the immediate vicinity, comes from many strata of society. She is not necessarily single. She may be widowed, deserted, separated, or divorced, without dependants. Whatever her status, socially she is found among the richest and the poorest. Her home training, experience and background differ. In some cases she has been accustomed to all the little niceties of life—happy home relationships, good books, music, drama and well educated friends. She herself may be a college graduate from a family where the father and mother had similar advantages. But she may have had none of this higher study or training. The unattached woman has been recruited from those with all the culture and appearance of refinement. She has also been recruited from the disorganized family, the crude, the intellectually and mentally poor and those who received little of life's advantages. Daughters of the butcher, the baker, the candlestick maker, the street cleaner, the banker, the lawyer and minister are found in the ranks of the bachelor girl.

Economic Training

The economic classifications, according to trades and professions, are many. From the unskilled, untrained section to the highly specialized teacher, nurse and business woman, we find all grades and classes of economic training, no matter what the age. The waitress of low-type restaurants, the mechanical factory worker who has stamped price tags all her life or has done nothing but button sewing, the supposed domestic worker who makes tragic mistakes in her cooking, as she practices on the family that is paying her a wage, all these and others add their numbers to the group of unattached women.

Then, too, we find the partially trained worker. The filing clerk, the small switchboard operator, the power machine operator, the store clerk, the forelady, the baby nurse and many others might be classified as having had limited education and training opportunities. The more highly specialized, better educated groups also help to swell the numbers of unattached women. Among these are the private stenographer, the book-keeper, the designer, the commercial artist, the writer, the nurse, the teacher and in some cases, even the doctor. In every field of securing a livelihood, where women have been accepted, you find the unattached woman.

Ages

And now you ask, "What of the age grouping?". If I were a man I would say "from 16 to 35", for I would know that no woman ever grows any older. Birthdays are forgotten and yearly recordings function no longer. But in actual fact the large cities of Canada, (Vancouver, Winnipeg, Toronto and Montreal, etc.) where the unattached have congregated, show a far wider field. Girls and women from 16 to old age pension years are daily becoming a part of this group, as families become more disorganized and broken from the strain of debt, financial loss and unemployment. This comparatively new section of society is not limited to the very young or the very old. It sets no age for membership qualifications.

Nationalities

To make statements about the nationality division is somewhat more difficult than the previous groupings mentioned. Using facts from the three largest cities of Canada it is possible to make a few very definite statements. The foreign-born (first generation) have contributed many women to this unattached group because of former heavy immigration. An important fact, learned from observation among approximately four hundred newcomers, is that dependency tends to be much less than among the unattached of British or Canadian birth. The very fact that young women of Europe have shown the keen desire for adventure and greater opportunities, and have pulled up their roots in the customs of the homeland to become transplanted in another land, points toward great courage, independence and resourcefulness. To attain her goal of being self-supporting and securing a better standard of living she is willing to do the menial jobs, or the housework from which so many British-born recoil. The foreign-born woman of many sections of Europe is indeed a member of the unattached group, but one who usually exhibits greater perseverance and stamina than some of the others we have learned to know so well. (This does not mean that in every European country all unattached women there would possess these same strong qualities—quite the contrary. The most aggressive and self-reliant would naturally tend to look farther afield for wider opportunities.) Let it suffice then, that the bachelor girl, in varying stages of self-sufficiency, has in her group representatives from many lands in the great cosmopolitan make-up of Canada.

Her Problems

To discuss this particular group in society and the problems which its members face daily, we must at first make certain that we keep in mind some definite outstanding factors.

The unattached woman gives clearer evidence of facing problems and difficulties when she is in financial need. Indeed, one must reiterate the fact that until the present unemployment situation became acute, we were hardly aware of the growth and increase in this particular section of society. However, we must not imagine that this woman is unattached solely because she has become dependent. Financial dependency brought her existence to our vision, but this very dependency is not the sole quality which places woman in the unattached group. For this reason let us remember that long before the depression days unattached women were having their difficulties, their trials and tribulations, though few of us really appreciated the extent of this. In fact, until she became an actual problem woman and landed in jail, in a reformatory or home for unmarried mothers, we did not think of the alone woman as having any problems peculiar to herself.

You and I were asleep at the very time when prevention would have meant so much. We have been slow to recognize even the group, much less the variety of irritants which the bachelor girl has had to meet. Indeed, the very fact of her being alone, without the stakes of the family tent right round her, has made her that much more vulnerable to the shocks and blows of life. In some cases strong moral and physical upbringing and friends in the form of wise counsellors have helped to steer women into successful, happy lives. But what of the others? Knowledge of the difficulties and pitfalls, and how to face them squarely, would have made such excellent preventive material. So we are very tardy in our awakening.

Economic Insecurity

In the life of all people a basic necessity is to make provision for everyday needs. All people of any mentality desire a knowledge that daily sustenance is forthcoming. The unattached woman in her necessary effort to gain a living for herself is naturally all the more affected by this desire for some financial security. This, in itself, is a big subject worthy of much detailed study. It involves the understanding of present day conditions, minimum wages which have become maximum ones, and other aspects of the struggle for existence in the workaday world of today. To understand completely the unattached woman and her financial troubles, one must see clearly the picture given by such reports as the Stevens Commission on Price Spreads and Wage Levels. A report, such as that produced by actual investigation among employers and employees, as done by Miss Winifred Hutchison in 1934 in the city of Toronto, is the sort of material necessary to complete one's

knowledge of true conditions existent in at least one section of the unattached woman's group.

We must also be very sure of the details which surround the life of each individual woman as she tries to earn her living against great odds. Social factors involved in various vocations or trades, where the girl is under great strain and nervous tension, must be considered seriously. Surely, these very conditions, as found in shops, factories, offices and stores, must be studied to get the graphic picture of a vicious circle in the lives of so many women who are alone. If she works long hours at a reduced piece-work rate with a pressure for high speed always goading her on, and then receives a \$6, \$8 or \$10-a-week wage, (even much lower rates exist) her sense of economic security is nil for even present needs of room, board, clothing, carfare, and incidentals. And her hope for the future is non-existent. Her sense of physical, mental and spiritual security is just as anaemic. If she possesses good mentality and some powers of insight she lives in a constant state of dread and fear in a cheap, ill-equipped room, in just as cheap a neighbourhood. Have you met her in your office or in public places? If so you can see her now in her sheer despondency. We cannot expect healthy, normal, wide-awake women to be tasting of the joys of full life when such an inhuman system prevails. All natural pleasures of life are killed. Yet, a large group of our unattached women in Canada are at this very minute living in this complete lack of surety for the future. (In one of Canada's largest cities over 1,000 older women are facing life without means of support and little likelihood of ever being employed again. Relief or dole for the remainder of their lives is all they have in view. Is this the picture of the future we would offer our women?)

Physical and Sexual Insecurity

Doctors, psychologists and nerve specialists give us to understand that the single woman without home ties and the intimate associations of relatives is faced with more than material or economic insecurity. Most certainly, she must provide for herself and learn to develop such resources through insurance, pension bonds, etc., as will make certain her old age income. The very fact that a woman is without protective attachments means that she must depend either upon herself or upon the community to which she belongs. But there is a more intimate need than that. Because of a woman's physical make-up and the sexual urges of her mature years she finds it difficult to accept frankly the possibility of no marriage relationships in life, (or a cessation of these on the part of the widow, divorcee, etc.). There develops a tendency to drift, to lack plan and purpose.

Let us, therefore, follow the stand taken by medical and mental experts. They tell us, as we have already mentioned, that women have more than economic insecurity to overcome. All women, in some way, seek the security of physical and mental well-being. It is in this connection that we must consider seriously the sexual aspect involved in the life of the unattached woman. This topic alone deserves tremendous thought and study. In fact, we would do well to urge those well-trained in the field of medicine and psychiatry to study this particular woman. She needs a frank statement of her urges, and practical suggestions as to many useful channels into which she may allow her energy to run. Without this the younger ones seek to discover for themselves. Already the unattached woman has been experimenting. Some have sought the temporary release through sexual promiscuity.* Some have learned the fine art of redirecting this force of creativity into lines of service and helpfulness to others. Then, a third group has received what pleasure and satisfaction is possible through homosexuality. From studies made in Canada concerning the prevalence of the latter, the participation in some groups has been estimated as high as 50 per cent.†

Mental Insecurity

Closely connected with this basic demand for response and material security there is the ever-present question of a healthy mind in a healthy body. The small and natural ills of womanhood often become aggravated and increase in number with the strain of earning a living and keeping up with the Joneses. The cost of medical advice for those earning is sometimes prohibitive to the unattached woman who has managed to remain independent. The one unemployed, however, usually does not face this particular difficulty, since her medical services are secured gratis. Nevertheless, though the unemployed woman has not this gnawing worry, she has several others to take its place. Physical fitness becomes doubly hard to preserve when there is mental anxiety. The lack of hope in the future for a self-sustaining livelihood and the opportunity to build for the future breaks down every practical support for mental security. Let us assert then that the unattached woman is more pressed by insecurity than the one attached to a natural family circle.

* Some most helpful, concrete studies in this needed re-adjustment in sex life can be found in

"The Normal Mind".....	W. H. Burnham
"Psychology and Life".....	L. Weatherhead
"Psychology in Service of the Soul".....	L. Weatherhead
"Psychology and Morals".....	Hadfield
"What Men Live By".....	Richard Cabot
"The Way of All Women".....	

† The above material has been collected from discussion with social workers, teachers, nurses, and doctors who know considerable about life in residences and camps throughout a number of the Canadian provinces. The findings referred to were secured from studies made both from the abnormal and average group, though the largest number came from those below par.

Spiritual Security

Though the unattached woman has problems which are peculiar to her state and to the fact that she is not tied with the natural bonds of family or relatives, she is nevertheless faced with the common search for spiritual security. The understanding of life and the acquiring of a satisfactory philosophy for everyday living is one of her needs as it is that of every other human being. She shows personality and individuality by the way she looks for this particular thing. The quieter, more reserved type who has been "nicely" brought up is still to be found attached to churches, seeking guidance and help in formulating such a philosophy. * The more aggressive, energetic, self-assertive type very often seeks the newer cults of religion or politics. In this group we find the well-trained, more earnest ones seeking a new and more usable sort of everyday religion. They will have none of the old time religion if it does not stand discussion or argument. This age of science with its analysis has produced women (as well as men) who dare to ask questions even about the sacred dogmas and religious teachings of their grandparents. They look for a motivating power and force as one of the basic qualities for a philosophy of life.

The Pioneer Job

But no matter what the personality, what the background and training, there has been found a very definite desire on the part of hundreds of Canadian girls for a greater understanding of spiritual forces. Young and old in their more serious moments have asked for a satisfying answer to the meaning of this material and moral struggle which all are carrying on. As you and I, the supposed leaders in the effort for social reform think on these things, we must individually become more convinced of our own understanding of life. We have a new and great job ahead of us. We have an ever-widening field which calls for our finest and most courageous thinking and acting.

The Bachelor Girl looks to those who have gained her faith and confidence to give her that vision of self-help that she may remain independent and self-commanding. If she has lost her poise and self-respect, she needs the same the more acutely. Full, triumphant living for the unattached woman to-morrow depends upon how we use our knowledge of this woman in our work with her to-day, the development of a broad field of interests, a sense of being needed by others and a knowledge that life will give her a depth of security if she gives of herself sufficiently. Programmes (individual and group) which draw this woman out of herself into a responsibility for others are the practical application in this field.

Having given them larger knowledge of themselves and life, the younger we draw them into plans and activities of visible usefulness and pure enjoyment, the better we shall do our duty by this group. We have passed the time for a wagging of shocked heads at the mis-steps or maladjustments of people. We need constructive effort in group and case work. As you and I apply this to the contacts of every day and lose no opportunities, we shall be building toward the period when abundant living shall be an actual fact and not just the heritage of our people.

* * *

WOMEN WORKERS THROUGH THE DEPRESSION

Lorine Pruette, Ph. D., Editor

Iva Lowther Peters, Ph. D., Director of Research

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The effect of the five depression years on the lives and earning power of a selected group of able, highly educated and ambitious urban women workers forms the basis for this study.

The American Women's Association with a membership of 4,000, ninety per cent of whom live in or near New York, undertook this study in order to ascertain the extent of economic security these women could reasonably expect throughout their working years. The number who were definitely unemployed over considerable periods, the change in economic status of a large percentage of the remainder, and the general curtailment of expenses reported by practically the whole group, bears witness to the insecurity experienced either in actual loss of work, or through the psychological effect of fear and uncertainty. The expenses which these women list as definitely reduced since January 1931, dress, theatres, travel, housing, food, books, churches, charities and luxuries of all kinds, added to the number of women who support or partially support one or more dependants gives only a sketchy idea of the percentage of the general population directly influenced by the chaotic economic conditions through which these women were passing.

A large number of questions arise from the numerous points brought to the reader's attention in this study, and a plea is made that women with experience and qualifications for an outstanding career should study, as a united group, the difficulties they have experienced in the depression years, and the obvious problems of the immediate future, in order to participate with intelligence in some definite plans for their solution.

M. T.



MATERNAL AND CHILD HYGIENE

THE OUT-PATIENT CLINIC OF THE ROYAL VICTORIA MONTREAL MATERNITY HOSPITAL

By GERTRUDE MATTHEWS
Medical Social Worker, Royal
Victoria Montreal Maternity
Hospital

IN THE address given by Dr. W. W. Chipman, at the meeting of the Canadian Welfare Council in Ottawa, December 3rd, 1935, on Maternal Mortality (which was nationally broadcast), he referred to the Maternity Service Programme followed by the Royal Victoria Maternity Hospital. The following article offers a more detailed account of the routine.

The hospital, being situated in the centre of the City, and a part of a large general hospital, is admirably placed to serve the need of the City of Montreal. The organization of the hospital has been so devised as to permit of a large interne service with an isolation section and an outdoor service, embracing as it does an antenatal, delivery, and postnatal service.

In addition, the antenatal service is carried into the community through the establishment of six stations strategically placed to meet the demands of the more heavily populated areas.

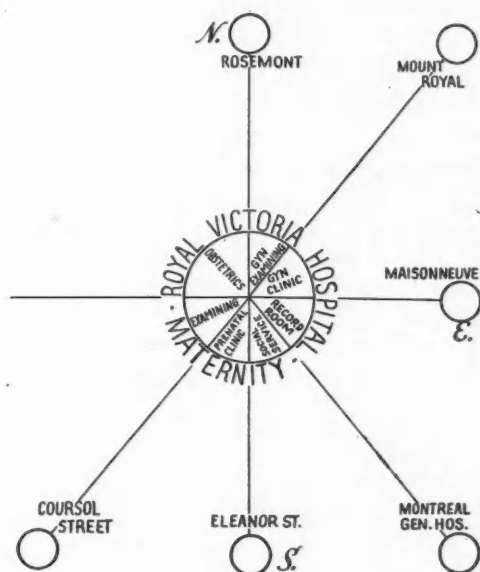
Six Service Units Assure Continuity of Service

The keynote of the whole organization lies in the internal arrangement of the beds into six services, each service being directed by a senior surgeon with various assistants. These services carry over into the out-patient department and a member of each service attends one antenatal station as consultant. In this way, units of a comprehensive character have been erected; thereby assuring a continuity of service, together with the assurance to the patient of a safe measure of supervision.

The diagram will illustrate the sub-stations situated in various parts of the City, for the convenience of the patient, all operated under one head, Dr. J. R. Fraser, Professor of Obstetrics and Gynaecology, McGill University, and Chief Obstetrician and Gynaecologist of the Royal Victoria Hospital.

These clinics were opened in 1926, and are the teaching centres for the medical students of McGill University. The medical staff also hold appointments on the faculty of the same university.

Prenatal clinics are held daily in the Maternity Hospital, and on certain days in the sub-clinics. In addition to the consultant, for each service, the personnel consists of an interne, graduate nurse supervisor, medical social worker, and the necessary student nurses. The sub-clinics have a similar set-up with a public health nurse.



The Clinic Routine

Patients presenting themselves at clinic, may come voluntarily, be sent by private doctors, or be referred from Public Health Organizations and Social Agencies. The first contact is with the medical social worker, who makes a careful analysis covering financial, social, and any other problem. She is then seen by a house doctor, who takes the case history, a complete physical examination, including pelvic measurements, urinalysis, blood pressure, weight, and wasserman. The clinic is divided into cubicles, each with individual equipment, so the patient is assured of privacy. Primiparas are all delivered in the hospital while perfectly normal multiparas may be home cases. Subsequent visits to the clinics are insisted upon at regular intervals; every month for the first seven months, and every two weeks during the eighth and ninth months, unless otherwise instructed by the doctors. Urinalysis, blood pressure, temperature, pulse and weight, are routinely checked at all these visits, and the patient hospitalized for treatment, if necessary, prior to delivery.

Outdoor Service

In 1934 five hundred patients were delivered in their homes, the bag containing the supplies being taken from the hospital, and the same careful technique being observed as used in the hospital. The house doctor delivering the patient in the home is accompanied by a senior medical student and a nurse. The ten days' nursing care is given by the staff of the hospital under the supervision of the graduate nurse in charge of the Outdoor Department. In some cases the patient is referred to the Victorian Order of Nurses following delivery.

Relations with Private Doctors and Agencies

If the patient is sent to clinic by her own doctor for consultation, after diagnosis has been given, she is referred back to him for delivery if he wishes.

Cooperation with all social agencies is maintained after the hospital has assumed the medical responsibility of the patient, by sending them routine reports and discharging the case to the interested agency.

Home Visits and Follow-up

During the prenatal period, regular visits are made by the medical social worker and public health nurse, to advise the patient regarding diet and personal hygiene, to interpret the doctors' orders, and see that they are followed; and relieve, as far as possible, the mother's anxiety by making suitable arrangements in the home for delivery, or by supplementing the supplies available. If the home conditions are impossible from a health standpoint, a transfer to the hospital is arranged. Delinquent clinic attendance is also part of the follow-up. The procedure is to notify the patient by post card and if she does not report, another visit is made. In this manner a very close watch is kept that she does not develop complications that could easily be avoided by regular clinic attendance. The names of all our primipara patients are sent to the Canadian Welfare Council, who send them the prenatal letters pertaining to each month of pregnancy; other patients receive the literature from the Department of Health at the City Hall.

Postnatal Care

When discharged from the hospital and outside service, the mother is given an appointment card with the date to return for her final check-up (six weeks). If at that time any further treatment is necessary, she is transferred to the special clinic indicated.

Child Welfare Supervision

Following discharge, all babies are routinely referred to the Child Welfare Association of Montreal with a report of any complications, weight at birth and discharge, feedings, etc. The arrangement existing is that the Child Welfare nurse will visit within twenty-four hours, to instruct the mother and advise her to report to the nearest Child Welfare clinic, where the child will be under observation until six years old.

We are very fortunate in having the Maternity and Gynaecological Social Service Departments financed by the Ladies' Auxiliary Committee of the hospital, with Lady Meredith, president. Through their efforts, interest is stimulated in the community through women's service clubs, church organizations, etc. Many layettes are obtained, blood transfusions paid for, and all supplies incidental to the Social Service Department, obtained. The Committee also operate canteens in the sub-prenatal clinics, cut out and sell baby garments at the minimum cost, and provide cars for part of the home visiting.

Hospital Charges

Public Patients pay.....	\$ 2.50 per day
Laboratory Fee.....	2.50
Drug Charge.....	.50
Patients Outside the City pay.....	3.00 per day
Outside Service (Home Delivery).....	15.00
(Including Nursing Care)	

The Civic grant to the Hospital is 18c. per day for the mother.

The Civic grant to the Hospital is 17c. per day for the child.

The Provincial grant to the Hospital is 18c. per day for the mother.

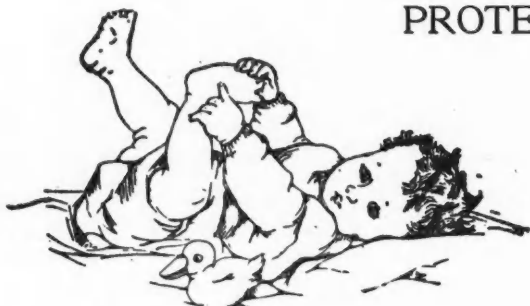
The Provincial grant to the Hospital is 17c. per day for the child.

These grants come to a total of 70c. per day for mother and child.

The above applies to patients living in the City. In view of the fact that the operating cost per diem for public patients in this hospital is \$4.59, this grant is inadequate.

There is no grant for the Outside Service. 80 per cent of our mothers are wives of unemployed men receiving relief. This service is made possible through the Board of Governors of the Hospital, at an estimated cost of \$17.00 per patient.

CHILD CARE AND



PROTECTION

TOWARD MENTAL AND SOCIAL STABILITY

K. H. ROGERS, PH.D.

Infants' Home, Toronto

THE Infants' Home, Toronto, was founded in 1875. It was established as an institution to provide care for infants from birth to three years of age, and babies with their mothers during the nursing period. In 1925, the institution part of the organization was completely supplanted by a boarding-out policy. So now family homes are secured where mothers and babies may find shelter and care. Every effort is made to give a mother a chance to mother her own baby. Infants are given real homes which may have been denied them because of illness, death, distress or delinquency of parents. These homes are visited by trained workers and are licensed by the Health Department of the City.

The Child Placing Department of the Infants' Home has developed rapidly, meeting the needs of an increasing population. During the past year, the total population exceeded a thousand. Following the nursing period, a mother may leave the organization and care for the baby herself. Or she may leave the child in the care of the Infants' Home, paying them to keep it in a foster home until some later time. Some mothers wish to have their children adopted into well-established homes, in which cases, the organization places the children with a view to adoption. All children are given physical and mental examinations, and careful follow-up by staff physician and psychologist is carried on in clinics and foster homes. In this way, foster mothers are given the best medical and mental health guidance in caring for the children.

The Mental Health Clinic was started in 1927 as a part of the home placement and supervision programme. Since that time, it has steadily increased its value in the general economy of the organization. Children being considered for adoption are examined

from a psychiatric and psychological point of view with a careful survey of all pertinent factors in their developmental histories and family backgrounds. Children displaying training or developmental difficulties constitute another large section of the clinic's clientele. Furthermore, the clinic operates with the aim of seeing for complete examination, every child registered with the organization in so far as this is possible under present conditions. The clinic also interviews occasional adult clients and contributes to the consideration of problems that may arise in individual or home supervision.

The following "incident" is presented as an illustration of one aspect of the work of the Infants' Home and the contribution that the Mental Health Clinic can make to it.

TOWARD HAPPINESS

Setting: The Mental Health Clinic, Infants' Home, Toronto.

SCENE I—The Doctor is seated at his desk. Enter a social worker of the staff.

Social Worker: "Doctor, could you make an appointment to see a gentleman, who, with his wife, is interested in adopting one of our children? He would like to talk to you about this child. They have seen the child and are very keen to take it."

Doctor: "I expect that can be arranged. Who is the child?" What are all the facts of the case?"

Social Worker: "You examined the boy last week. It was following your examination that we suggested to the applicant, Mr. Quather, that he might be interested in seeing this child. The infant seems to be a good one for adoption. The child is Peter Bant."

Doctor: "Yes, I remember the name. Let us see what the report has to say. Here is a copy of it. Peter Bant. Age 16 months. Two psychometrics, "dull normal" level indicated on each. During the examination, he showed a friendly and co-operative attitude, good social response, with a pleasing manner. Good attention generally. Some inquisitiveness. Quite contented by himself and plays well. The foster-mother reports that he is quite active at home and inclined to be full of mischief."

Social Worker: "Mr. Quather told me that they have seen Peter a couple of times and are very much taken with him. They think he is a very nice little chap."

Doctor: "The family history doesn't tell us much about the background to this case, does it? The little information we have about the grandparents suggests that they were of an average

type. The mother of this child had to leave school early, and has been employed as a factory worker and as a domestic. She is described as attractive but unreliable. There is no information concerning the father of the child, apart from the fact that he was unemployed, and a single man. The psychiatric picture is apparently negative, and the physical condition of the child is excellent."

Social Worker: "What did you recommend in your report concerning the adoptive possibilities of this child, Doctor?"

Doctor: "Here it is. 'We see no reason why this child should not be considered for adoption providing the prospective parents are such that they will not demand too much of this child intellectually.' How do you think these people fit into that picture?"

Social Worker: "I don't really know, but probably all right."

Doctor: "Well, since the man is interested in making full enquiries, I think we had better see him. Then, probably, we will be better able to judge. Could he come in Wednesday afternoon, let us say, at two o'clock?"

Social Worker: "I will try to arrange that. Next Wednesday, at two."

Doctor: "Yes."

* * *

SCENE II—The Doctor and Mr. Quather seated at the desk.

Mr. Quather: "Mrs. Quather and I have seen this boy twice and we are quite interested in him. He has a fine smile and looks happy. My wife just can't stop talking about him. She is planning all sorts of things for him now. She is already calling him "Sonny" and speaking of 'our boy'. However, we both think it well to hear what you have to say first, before we definitely decide."

Doctor: "Very good. Now tell me, if you don't mind, Mr. Quather, what is your employment?"

Mr. Quather: "I am a business office manager; possibly, you might say, a minor executive."

Doctor: "That gives you a fair income?"

Mr. Quather: "Yes, I suppose, as office incomes go. We consider ourselves quite comfortable. We are buying our home. It is quite well furnished, and we have plenty of room."

Doctor: "What is your educational record?"

Mr. Quather: "I finished High School. I had to get out and work then. Also, I took a business course."

Doctor: "What education would you plan for a boy of your own?"

Mr. Quather: "A college education would be the aim. Any child to whom I give my name I hope will have more schooling than I had, and I would like to think that he might become a member of one of the professions. However, that's talking away into the future, isn't it?"

Doctor: "No, Mr. Quather, that is very important right now; and I was just afraid when I shook hands with you a few minutes ago that what you have said would turn out to be the situation. Now, let me be quite frank with you concerning this adoption you have in mind. I have examined Peter quite thoroughly and have looked into all the records we have on him. From a medical standpoint, our physician gives him a clear bill of health. Concerning his personality, he seems to be well adjusted, fairly active, pleasant, and quite happy."

Mr. Quather: "Yes, that is what we thought about him."

Doctor: "But that isn't quite the whole story. I made the following recommendation to the Supervisor of our Placement Department respecting this boy — that he was a splendid lad for adoption, provided that too much was not expected of him intellectually."

Mr. Quather: "Oh, we would want any child we take to do well in school."

Doctor: "Yes, I appreciate that. Because of all you have told me about yourself and your own family, I have set out to acquaint you with the situation as I see it respecting this boy in whom you are interested. Now, I am quite unable to predict how far this boy will go in school. There are predictive statements respecting various intellectual level possibilities, but too many uncontrollable factors enter into the picture to be definite on such a point. However, I feel that I can justifiably say that this lad will hardly be able to live up to what you have in mind for him.

"Let me explain a little further. Let us suppose that all people are distributed on a straight line with respect to their degree of intelligence. There are, then, a few who are outstandingly able at one end of this line and a few who are very low or lacking in ability at the other end. Now as we go from either end of the line, or scale, toward the middle, the number of people who fall at any place along the line increases very rapidly. So that the bulk of the population falls around the middle part of the line. Right at the middle, we speak of Normal Intellectual capacity. Thus, those on the

one side tend to be below the Normal and those falling on the other side tend to be above the Normal. Now, Peter here, falls a little along the low half from the middle point. If he had rated the same distance from the Normal, but on the upper side, I would personally, feel much happier about it."

Mr. Quather: "I see But he's such a likeable little chap, and my wife is quite taken with him. He seems quite bright looking. Still, I don't want him to be dull or slow in getting along, because we will certainly do all we can for any boy we have."

Doctor: "I believe you Well, there is the picture as I see it—let me say, the picture of this boy as I see him since you have come into it."

Mr. Quather: "What would you advise, Doctor?"

Doctor: "Since you ask me, this: that you go home and thoroughly talk the situation over with Mrs. Quather. Don't let it worry you; try to look at all the facts impartially. Then after you have talked it over, let it rest for a few days, having in mind that you don't do anything more about it for at least four days. I would suggest that we make an appointment for you to come in and see me a week from to-day. How about that? And, remember, there may be some other little boys somewhere."

Mr. Quather: "All right, Doctor, I'll just do that. Thank you very much for putting the whole situation before me in the way you have."

Doctor: "That's fine. The decision, of course, is quite up to you. A certain amount of chance has to be taken in all adoptions, you will understand. It is our part to reduce that element of chance just as much as we can. I gave you the facts as I see them, and have suggested what I think will be the best for all concerned. The future happiness of several persons might be better served by facing all the facts now. I hope so. Well, I'll see you next week. My good wishes. Good-bye."

* * *

SCENE III—Two weeks later.

Doctor: "So, you are asking me about Jack Zonders."

Mr. Quather: "Yes, Doctor, after considering what you told me when I was here two weeks ago, we visited a few other children, under the kind direction of the Children's Aid. Mrs. Quather and I both liked this baby the moment we saw him. He has

very dark hair, the same as myself, and we both like that. Now we want to hear what you have to say about this choice."

Doctor: "You are certainly in earnest about this job of being parents. Personally, I have great admiration for those people who can accept the task and risk of parenthood in these rather difficult days. Now about this baby boy. I saw him yesterday. Let me say this, I think you were wise to wait. For three reasons: 1.—this boy is younger; let us see, he is just eleven months old isn't he? Yes, that's it. Well, that is the first reason, and an important one too, likely. 2.—You recall that distribution of people respecting their intelligence on a line-like scale that I was telling you about on your last visit? Yes. Now this boy very definitely falls away from the middle point in the upper direction. This is what my report says, "a high normal developmental level appears to be quite definitely indicated." And the third reason is that the picture respecting family background, developmental history and personal adjustment, seems to be negative, that is, favourable, throughout."

Mr. Quather: "I'm certainly pleased to hear you say that, because I feel rather set on having this little fellow. My, that is fine."

Doctor: "Well, I'm pleased to be able to tell you that. Now, the possibilities in this boy respecting what you have in mind for any son of yours are quite good. What actually turns out to be the case in the years to come, depends primarily, barring accidents, upon the care and guidance you and your wife give this little chap. May I wish you the best of success. And I'm thinking this boy is going to have a supreme asset in this business of living, namely a good home. I hope so."

Mr. Quather: "Thank you, Doctor, and may we call upon you later if we run into difficulties?"

Doctor: "You most certainly may—but only under two conditions. First, that you allow free play to your sense of humour in looking at the problems you are bound to run into, which implies not taking yourself too seriously. And secondly, that you come accepting the responsibility for the difficulty. But, I hope, if that should be the only reason for your returning, that I don't see you here again. However, there may be another reason for your coming here at some later date; and when you come, I am sure that we will be able to find you just as nice a little girl. Good-bye."

NEWS NOTES

CHARLOTTETOWN C. A. S. CONSIDERS MENTAL DEFICIENCY PROBLEM

The problem of mental deficiency as one of major concern to welfare agencies was the chief point of emphasis in the annual review of work of Charlottetown's Children's Aid Society for 1935. Dr. H. A. Murchison, Medical Superintendent of Falconwood Hospital, gave a comprehensive outline of the problems of mental deficiency and mental disease in the featured address of the meeting, and deplored the lack of adequate institutional facilities on the Island for treatment.

Mr. W. J. Brawders, Agent of the Society, submitted the annual report of the year's work with some eighty children in ward care. A determined effort is being made, he said, to secure the opening of more foster homes throughout the Island, for the care of these children. Two orphanages also assisted the society in caring for many of its wards.

REORGANIZED BROCKVILLE SOCIETY HAS ACTIVE YEAR

Claude A. Winters, Superintendent of the Brockville Children's Aid Society, submitted the report for his first full year in office to the recent annual meeting of the Society, recording a phenomenal increase in the demand upon the services of the organization in an enlarged field of work, with 156 children under care at the close of the year. With the addition of a social worker to the staff a few months ago, the Society is now undertaking more case work with individual families with emphasis upon preventive work in the homes of children who are in need of social protection.

TORONTO INFANTS HOME CLOSES 60th YEAR.

The Infants Home of Toronto recently closed its sixtieth year of activity with a record of having sheltered 14,000 children and 3,800 mothers in its institutions and foster homes.

With its original institution serving no longer for shelter care, the agency has been serving a greatly enlarged field through its foster homes for a number of years, and had under its care close to one thousand children and mothers in 1935.

The activity of this agency in parent training projects is emphasized in its reports. The individual work of the social worker in her case work visits is supplemented by group work with both foster mothers and foster fathers, which has met with a keen and interested response on the part of the foster parents who are partners with this agency in the care and upbringing of these children.



FAMILY WELFARE AND RELATED PROBLEMS

PARENT EDUCATION AND SOCIAL WORK

KATHLEEN GORRIE

Executive Secretary, Protestant Children's Home,
Toronto

ONE of the most striking facts about parent education is the association of those two words "parent" and "education." It is said that there is nothing new under the sun, but it is doubtful if ever before parents admitted the need for training for their particular job. It was usually held that the creation of the special wisdom and judgment required for the rearing of children (if indeed any such requirement were admitted) was in some miraculous way a part of the biological process. What then has changed, or perhaps we should say, is changing that attitude?

No one factor of course is entirely responsible. There are several and even these are largely inter-dependent. But we have in the first place, thanks to the efforts of the social scientist — the pediatricist, the psychologist and pedagogist — a growing body of knowledge and information as to the child's physical and mental development and how that development can and should be directed. On the other hand we have children being born into a world which is changing so rapidly that each day it is as new to the adult as it is to the child. The intelligent and the conscientious parent feels an imperative need for an understanding of the child because all the traditions and precepts, which in the past served to some degree the purpose of guide posts for parents in the training of their children have been swept away. In the days of our parents and grandparents, ways of living changed so slightly from one generation to another that a parent could, or at least thought he could, offer some precepts to a child, gained from his own trial and error experience, in addition to those of pure tradition. But now the parents and others interested in the training of children realize that the child must be prepared to meet a life which no one can chart for him, but through which he must steer his own course. The only safe-guards they have to offer him lie within the child himself, and so the child must be made independent and self-reliant.

The task of parent education is to bring about a union between these two factors, to bring these two mutually interested groups — the specialist and the parent — into a close and vital relationship. The specialists are ardently willing to give of the fruit of their

knowledge and experiments. The parents are a less certain quantity; — some have the desire for help but are unaware of the source; some are aware of the problem but not aware of the cause, and therefore, do not see the significance of the information, although they may know of its presence; others are still satisfied that "what was good enough for my father is good enough for me."

Participation of Social Workers Essential

In this situation social workers can obviously be key persons and their participation in the Parent Education movement is essential. They have much to give and much to gain by such a participation. Many of the family and individual problems with which they are confronted arise from faulty parent-child relationships, and an understanding of methods of re-directing and correcting these relationships and attitudes, provides them with a new and valuable resource for prevention and treatment. In return, they can make a contribution by widening the field of research. They can bring the child study specialists into a natural contact with various national, racial and economic groups and provide them with the opportunity to study the particular problems arising from these differing situations.

In Toronto the relationship between the social agencies and the St. George's School for Child Study, of the Department of Psychology, University of Toronto, from which our Parent Education movement has emanated, has always been a very close one. The Directors of the School early recognized the significance of the social workers' contribution to the movement and have persistently encouraged their active interest. The social workers have been equally ready to appreciate the importance of Parent Education in the development of their services and have been eager to take advantage of every opportunity offered them by the School.

Training Group Leaders

When the St. George's School for Child Study started training classes for Parent Education group leaders, our social agencies were invited to send staff members for training, and did so. In 1928, the first two Parent Education groups were started in social agencies, one in a Settlement and one in a Crèche. The following year four other agencies organized groups,—one Settlement, two family agencies and a child placing agency. By 1934 twenty-six groups were being held under the auspices of social agencies, out of a total of fifty-three groups being conducted throughout the City.

The enthusiasm of our social workers was not based on an academic interest or a desire to try out a new fad, but upon the

very concrete results which were being achieved. They observed values growing out of the groups which were not anticipated, a sort of by-product which was something gained by the agency over and above the direct contribution of the parents themselves.

Parent Education in Child Placing Agencies

For instance — The child placing agencies were among the first to adopt Parent Education groups. Many of these had had foster parent associations, at which topics of interest to such a group were discussed — child welfare, in general, and various agency rules and routines in particular. These associations quite naturally broke up into or developed into Parent Education groups. The discussion then narrowed down to the basic principles of child training and the particular problems of individual children were presented by the foster mothers for discussion by the whole group under trained and constructive leadership. For perhaps the first time the case worker supervising the child in the foster home (who was in many instances the group leader) had the opportunity of really seeing the child in his relationship to his foster home and in learning much of his reaction to his past, as well as his present experience. This was not because the foster mother was caught unawares and was "giving away" the situation, but because in the group and in the light of the information she was receiving there, she too was seeing the child anew. These groups have in many cases re-vitalized the whole job of foster home supervision in the child caring agencies, which is very apt to become inspectional, no matter how conscientious the case worker may be.

Where the child caring agency has a mental hygiene clinic the Parent Education group has become an essential accompaniment to the clinic, interpreting the principles lying behind the detailed instructions given to foster parents by the psychiatrist. Our Infants' Home this year had a most successful foster father group led by their staff psychologist. It was an entertaining and informal group, and they arranged for several guest speakers. The social workers report that in many instances it has created, and in others intensified, the paternal interest in the foster child and has greatly increased his co-operation with the agency. Our Children's Aid Society, which is responsible for all adoption placements, is organizing Parent Education groups for prospective adoptive parents. This is difficult to achieve, as adoptive parents usually avoid instruction or so called "interference" from a social agency. They are almost worse than own parents in this respect, but they have met this challenge to the sincerity of their motive in taking a child and are prepared to be trained for their job.

Its Value in the Family Agency

Perhaps no agency has had more gratifying results from the case work point of view than the family welfare organization. In a most interesting paper given before our Parent Education Council last winter, Miss Emerson, of the Neighbourhood Workers Association, showed how in the Parent Education groups organized by their district offices and led by a staff member, the knowledge gained of the families was invaluable. They were able to discover, through some chance remark in a group discussion, or in a confidential chat with the case worker, following the meeting, some clue to a difficulty for which the worker had been seeking perhaps for months or years, a clue which followed meant a cause discovered and a cure made possible.

New Mutual Interests for the Parents

And the sheer social value of these groups would alone have made them worth while. Frequently the children were the only mutual interest which the parents possessed and often in fact the only interest of any sort which either had. Having joined a parents' group they made friends with other parents who had equally limited interests and found companionship at least. We scarcely realized the dearth of interests in an average working man's family until we started our parent education group for our foster mothers and discovered how important was this opportunity for social contact to them. Another valuable result is the order and the peace brought into a home previously threatened with breakdown, when the parents learn something of the effectiveness of simple but consistent discipline and of their own contribution to the temper tantrums of their children and begin to put their new ideas into practice. For parent education not only educates the parent to give adequate training to the child, it proves of almost equal value in helping the parent to understand his own difficulties, his own mistakes and his own limitations.

In Day Nurseries and Settlements

The Day Nurseries and the Settlements, having play or nursery schools for their pre-school children, are in a fortunate position from the standpoint of parent education groups. They can demonstrate to the parents that the principles and practices advocated in parent education, do work out with the children, and for these agencies parent education seems to be indispensable. Many children are brought to the Crèche for two or three days of the week only; if in the remaining days the mother does not carry through the habit training which the nursery school has established

the teacher's efforts are wasted and this child holds back the whole group. A parent bringing a child to the Crèche will frequently relate behaviour difficulties. The Crèche may cope with these successfully by intelligent guidance. The parent (often in these days the father, who being unemployed, brings the child to and from the Crèche) observes this with amazement and is anxious to be shown how it is done. The parent education group is the answer for him and for other parents who are in a similar position.

Parent education will bring to the Settlement all the advantages gained by these other organizations and more. — The opportunity to know more intimately the life of their families and to understand their personal difficulties — to assist in smoothing out personal and family problems through putting into practice more wholesome methods of discipline, to interpret one generation to another, and to show to parents of different racial and national groups that they have, in this task of child training, a common problem and a common meeting ground. And in their clubs, men's, women's and young people's, the Settlements have a natural starting point, as have the children's agencies in their foster mothers' group. It is simply a question of arousing or stimulating an interest in parent education. Again, as with the Crèches, the Nursery School will be one effective means. The head worker of one of our Settlements reports that while many Jewish children in their neighbourhood entered into the Settlement activities, they could never get the Jewish mothers to come to their mothers' clubs. When the parent education group was started, one or two Jewish mothers of nursery school children joined. They soon brought their friends and now the Jewish mothers are the most regular attendants at the group and join in many other Settlement activities. Undoubtedly the reason for the Jewish parents' marked interest in parent education, which the Jewish family and child caring agencies also report, is their awareness that the traditional precepts, especially those of race and religion, no longer have a hold on the new generation, growing up in a new land and a new age. And wanting above all things that their children should make a successful adjustment in this new country and having a profound respect for learning and the learned, they will accept more readily what the specialist has to offer. This, I should imagine, would also apply to many other European national groups. It is our experience that many of the Old Country parents, English, Irish and Scottish, are of the "what was good enough for my father" type, and are inclined to resent the suggestion that they have anything to learn. They can be won over to a certain extent but they must be approached warily and with great tact, as we, in our own organization, have learned from actual experience.

The Settlements have also a better opportunity than almost any other social agency for a reciprocal participation in the parent education movement, the opportunity of offering the research specialist contact with family backgrounds and family experiences, which may furnish an interesting field of study.

Groups More Successful Under Staff Leader

You will notice that there has been frequent mention of a staff member leading the parent education group. This appears to be one of the requisites for success of parent education classes in a social agency. The average parent or foster parent needs more interpretation of the principles of child guidance than can usually be given in a group alone. If the leader is available for a consultant service, even though she wisely avoids prescribing set remedies for particular problems and simply reiterates the principles discussed in the group, her personal knowledge of the child and of the situation makes her suggestions more impressive. We cannot rely on outside leadership, if we wish our parent education groups to be effective in our social agencies. This means an added burden for the already over-worked social worker, for the training course for parent education group leadership is, in Toronto at least, to put it mildly, "stiff". Parent education seems to have become or at least is becoming so vitally important in every field of social work that it would seem that our Schools of Social Work should lengthen their training period and incorporate into it an intensive course in parent education leadership.

Spreading the Gospel of Parent Education

As social workers, however, our responsibility goes further than our own agency.

May I cite briefly two significant remarks made recently, which perhaps point the way by which we can further the general development of Parent Education in the community.

One of our research pediatricists stated at a recent meeting that mothers were becoming "cod liver oil" conscious — 99 out of 100 mothers coming to the clinic at the children's hospitals, he declared, reported that they gave cod liver oil to their babies. No matter how ignorant they might be of other factors in diet they knew that babies should have cod liver oil. All their friends gave it to their children — it was "done", therefore, they did it.

A new leader in a parent education group in a child placing agency complained after her first meeting that the discussion period was spoiled because all the foster mothers knew the right answers. Their responses seemed too automatic to her, she doubted that

they knew what they were saying, and felt that they had simply learned a pattern. "If this is true", she said, "and many of our parents do not grasp all that lies behind the principles of child training, as presented in our Parent Education groups, is the information given there of any value?"

Cod liver oil will build healthier bodies for our children, even although the mothers do not know its vitamin content. If the psychological theory lying behind all our modern advertising is sound, then when parents know the right answers to questions regarding discipline, fear and habit training, they will be likely to put this knowledge into action when the particular occasion arises. In this case even though they do not know why they act as they do surely something at least will be gained. We must, therefore, make our parents 99% "child study" conscious. Unfortunately no commercial firms can benefit from the sale of "child study" as drug firms can benefit from the sale of cod liver oil. We cannot count on expensive advertising schemes to back up our propaganda, so we shall have to rely on our own efforts to sell this idea, which will mean better mental health for our children. We must co-ordinate our efforts and pool our experiences in order that we may spread the gospel of Parent Education to an ever larger circle. The best method of doing this, it seems to us in Toronto, is through a Parent Education Council.

In December, 1933, when our Council was first formed, there were fourteen parent education groups held in the City. In December, 1934, there were fifty-three. While this large increase was not entirely due to the Council's activities and its publicity, these undoubtedly had a marked influence upon it. The Parent Education Council offers an admirable meeting ground for those whose primary interest is in the child,—the parent, the teacher the social worker, and the nurse,—and in times such as these, with all the complex problems of living which lie ahead for the child, and with all the valuable contributions towards the solving of many of these problems, it is essential that this opportunity be utilized to the fullest possible extent.

* * *

UNEMPLOYMENT AND FAMILY LIFE

"No one starves, or goes hungry in the city of Winnipeg, needs are taken care of, and I have heard it said by the medical profession that there is very little undernourishment. It is the *doing nothing* that breaks the will, Mr. J. D. Fraser, Superintendent of Winnipeg's Unemployment Relief Department, declared in a recent contribution to the much discussed subject of the effects of

unemployment on family life. The occasion was the recent Manitoba Conference on Social Welfare which gave emphasis to the seriousness of this problem in Canada's prairie metropolis.

In a thoughtful commentary on the deterioration in family bonds and ideals as observed in his department, Mr. Fraser implied the need for concentration upon individual family problems by welfare agencies in the salvage work which lies ahead.

Boys and girls leaving home at a tender age because of the economic difficulty, youth deprived of all the social amenities of life, the undermining of the religious influence of the home, the breaking up of harmonious relations between man and wife in situations which would never have arisen but for prolonged unemployment, and loss of ideals among the younger children—"the helpfulness gone out of the home", the discontent, almost verging on panic "because of *the terrible sameness of every day*," the tendency to link up with outlaw organizations—these are some of the characteristic effects observed by the staff of a department currently assisting twenty to thirty thousand persons a month,

Dwelling more particularly on the problem as it affects youth, Mrs. A. Welch, Supervisor in the same department, also addressed the Conference on this subject. "We are all seized by a longing to guard youth from a mass of difficulties which are sure to confront them, and where but in the home should this guarding be done. At the very outset we must bear in mind that the senses of youth are singularly acute, and ready to respond to every vivid appeal either for good or evil. How can youth receive the support and training that the home provides if they have withdrawn from the home because of economic conditions? And then there are the blasted hopes of ambitious young people, who have hoped and planned through school and high school for careers, but because of unemployment cannot continue. . . . Not all young people leave home because of unemployment. There is a large percentage who stay with the family through all its difficulties; they cannot help but become embittered by the day after day listlessness of their parents.

"Indeed, in the freshness of life is felt the unity of life, and youth is one throughout the world and throughout history as older life never is. We cannot cure unemployment, but can we not get together and do something to harness all this charm of young human life, and create an interest which, left to run riot, may some day mean our undoing".

M. B.



COMMUNITY ORGANIZATION

ADVENTURES IN CO-OPERATION

NORMA TOUCHBURN

Supervisor, Division of Family Welfare,
Neighbourhood Workers Association, Toronto

THE term, "Co-operative Case", like many another term, has come to have recently, a very definite meaning in social work language, instead of the general interpretation to which it originally lent itself. To social workers in some cities in the United States, it signifies almost exclusively now, a case carried by a private agency in co-operation with a relief department. The private agency gives case-work service, at the request of the relief department, to problems other than unemployment, which may arise in certain families on relief. Our concern here is not with this type of co-operative service, although it has been developed in one or two Canadian cities. It is hoped that "Child and Family Welfare" will make known something of this experience in the near future.

Neighbourhood Workers Have Many "Co-operative Cases"

Consideration will be given, instead, to a type of co-operative case, long familiar to us all, in whose interest, any two or more agencies co-operate in a plan for intensive or long-time treatment and where one of the agencies is a case-working one. Among the families at present under the care of the Neighbourhood Workers Association in Toronto, over 150 can be legitimately described as co-operative cases of this type. Similar cases have, of course, long been carried by them, where joint planning with the family is carried on in co-operation with health agencies, such as public health, mental hygiene and bed-side nursing, with another case-working agency, such as the Big Brother Movement, the Big Sister Association or a child placing agency or with a recreational organization for adults or children. Many such records of interesting experiences in co-operation are to be found in the files of the specialized agencies as well. Cases carried by a family agency in co-operation with a church or volunteer group form a group of their own.

A Family and Children's Agency Work Together

There is one interesting type of case, upon which the Neighbourhood Workers Association and the Protestant Children's Homes

of Toronto have been co-operating for some time. A boy, who has come into juvenile court several times for minor delinquencies, may be recommended at the behaviour clinic there, for placement in a foster home in a rural community as an experiment in the treatment of the problem. If the boy's family is already known to the Neighborhood Workers Association, co-operation at once begins between the two case-working agencies. If the family is not known, the Protestant Children's Homes ask that the Neighborhood Workers Association accept responsibility for case work in the home before the placement is made. While the case-worker of the Protestant Children's Homes is working with the boy in his foster-home, the case-worker from the family agency is trying to effect such changes in the situation in the home and in the attitude of the other members of the family as will make possible the boy's return to his home and his ultimate successful adjustment there. Sometimes, he has remained in the foster-home as long as a year before a return home seemed advisable.

It might be noted in passing that the case-work groups, organized by the Neighborhood Workers Association, especially the parent education groups, with the leadership of staff members, have been very valuable in helping the parents to a better understanding of their own problems and of methods of solving them.

It has been found that greater and better results follow when conferences between the two agencies are regular and frequent. To the family case-worker, insight into the character and attitude of the parents and their relationship to their children has been increased to an unusual degree through the parents' contact with the foster home. When the foster home proves a success, careful consideration, and comparison take place as to what elements exist there, but are absent in the boy's own home. Attempts to develop these then in the home, follow.

Other case-workers and supervisors of the two agencies are sometimes present at the conference, in addition to those actually doing the case work, very much to the advantage of all.

Co-operation With Visiting Homemakers

Another interesting example is the co-operation between the Neighborhood Workers Association or another family agency, and the Visiting Homemakers' Association on behalf of a family needing the service of a resident homemaker, when the mother is temporarily or permanently out of the home. This homemaker receives her training in the Visiting Homemakers Association and is on their staff, and gives twenty-four hour service in a home, taking complete charge for periods that vary from weeks to months or a

year or more at times. This is usually asked for in homes where the man is employed. A family agency has the privilege of asking for this service for a family known to it. If an application comes to the Director of the Visiting Homemakers Association from the family itself or another agency, and in her judgment requires the service, she asks the Neighborhood Workers Association or another family agency, to take responsibility in the home. If the family agency for any reason cannot do this, the service is not given as the plan has not worked out successfully otherwise.

In over a dozen cases in the past year, co-operation has been possible between the Neighborhood Workers Association and Visiting Homemakers Association in this special kind of planning and several interesting experiences have been shared in helping a widower to keep his children in the home with him. In one or two of the cases, it has not been entirely successful, but in the majority the success has encouraged further co-operation. This is rather remarkable when the problems which can arise over child-training, budgeting and buying may be imagined. Needless to say, the closest contact must be maintained between the man, the resident homemaker and her supervisor, and the family case worker. Homes have been satisfactorily held together over the period of crisis until the widower re-marries or some other plan made possible. It is agreed by both agencies that such a service, if it could be extended, would be invaluable in those homes of the employed man, where the wife has been placed in a mental hospital for prolonged or permanent care.

Other Co-operative Experiments

Other plans for co-operation are in too experimental a stage to do more than refer to them. Planning to share responsibility in a more constructive way is going forward for the re-adjustment in their own homes of patients discharged from hospitals for the mentally ill. Both public and private agencies will co-operate with the case-workers and staff of the Hospital. In a year's time, much that will be interesting can be confidently expected in any report on this co-operative service.

The Neighborhood Workers Association is just beginning a plan of co-operation in case-work with families, with the Junior League of Toronto. After only a three months' experiment, each organization is so much encouraged that any report now, could be written in glowing terms only. More will be heard of this later.

Particularly, in these co-operative cases of an unusual nature, the case-workers in the Neighborhood Workers Association look upon each as an adventure, upon which each agency and the client

or family set out together. Like any worthwhile adventure, there is always the element of surprise, of risk, and of danger even, at times, but if the adventurers have courage, vision, confidence in each other, a large measure of skill and a sense of humour among them, the results in the main will be worthwhile.

For the family, the resources, initiative and skill of two or more agencies are available to help meet the challenge of the situation. With the dynamic sharing of the problem, more effective treatment is, undoubtedly, possible.

Perhaps as great as the advantage to the family, has been the advantage to the co-operating agencies. The staffs of each agency have gained a broader understanding of the possibilities of the service each has to offer, and, too, have come to appreciate the limitations of the service and the reason for this. A greater respect has resulted for one another's function in the community. There can be little doubt that some enrichment in the service for each in its own field has followed, and it may be generally conceded that it is an ideal means of breaking down any walls that may have been erected around our different fields of work.

* * *

COMMUNITY CHEST CAMPAIGN, 1935

THIRTEEN Canadian Community Chests in six provinces of the Dominion raised \$3,027,325 in their 1935 campaigns, with the expectation that totals will be further increased in one or two instances. The group includes one successful newcomer to the ranks of Canadian charitable federations—Regina's Community Chest, which raised \$39,000 in its maiden effort, on behalf of fifteen federated agencies.

Excluding Regina's total, the figures supplied by the older federations amount to an aggregate of \$2,988,325, exceeding the previous year's totals by \$76,000, and the 1933 totals by \$213,000. The majority of the federations succeeded in bettering their previous year's totals this year, and one or two others expect at least to equal the 1934 result when delayed but expected returns are finally counted in.

With "special circumstances" held accountable for unavoidable reverses in at least two campaigns, the results on the whole were most encouraging when compared with totals of the previous two years, showing in almost all instances a well sustained and successful effort to reach a larger number of contributors, and more attention to the building of an effective campaign organization

under the stimulating necessity of building new resources to offset the heavy depression losses. The Federation of Jewish Philanthropies of Toronto attributes the 15 per cent increase in its total largely to the concentrated effort to improve the effectiveness of its campaign personnel and careful attention to the assignment of prospects in the last campaign. In one or two other cities a definite re-canvass was undertaken in specific campaign divisions whose first returns were judged inadequate. It is probable that levels of giving are becoming more nearly equalized in relation to giving capacity as campaign officials have struggled with new determination, under the urgent necessities created by increased need and exhausted reserves, to reach the goals set before them.

Exceptionally well fortified with prospect cards for its initial campaign, the Regina chest secured nearly 8,000 pledges, an excellent result for a first campaign in a city with such heavy relief burdens. The other newer federations of Vancouver, Ottawa, and the French speaking community of Montreal have continued to forge ahead with consistent increases each year in the number of contributors reached and effective attacks on that problem of raising levels of giving.

Of the relation of campaign results to objectives set, little worthwhile comment can be made, for objectives in too many instances reflect "campaign opportunism" rather than "budgetary realism".

The following is a tabulation of approximate results obtained. In one or two cases these figures will differ from published results, where the objective was set at a figure which included government grants or other sources of income, as well as private subscriptions. This was the case in Winnipeg. The Halifax Community Chests hopes to increase its final total by several thousand dollars.

	Raised 1935	Raised 1934
Halifax Community Chest.....	\$ 56,000	\$ 61,000
Montreal:		
Federated Charities.....	690,000	700,019
Federation of Catholic Charities.....	179,775	180,190
Federation of Jewish Philanthropies.....	272,400	266,000
Federation des Oeuvres de Charite		
Canadiennes-Françaises.....	305,317	289,020
Toronto:		
Federation for Community Service.....	478,400	443,232
Catholic Charities.....	102,430	103,318
Federation of Jewish Philanthropies.....	75,000	65,000
Ottawa Federated Charities.....	146,777	136,957
Hamilton Community Chest.....	92,000	91,500
Winnipeg Community Chest.....	268,000	270,000
Regina Community Chest.....	39,000
Vancouver Welfare Federation.....	322,226	305,550
	<hr/> \$3,027,325	<hr/> \$2,911,786



DELINQUENCY AND RELATED SERVICES

THE DELINQUENT CHILD AND THE INSTITUTION

A composite study published by the New York
State Department of Social Welfare, 1935.

Reviewed by Harry Atkinson, Superintendent, Manitoba Home for
Boys, Portage la Prairie, Man.

*AIMS AND REALITIES IN THE TREATMENT OF JUVENILE
DELINQUENCY* is dealt with by Katherine F. Lenroot, Assistant
Chief, Childrens Bureau, U.S.

Miss Lenroot takes us back 35 years to Chicago, when a court was established which was founded upon a principle of treatment based primarily upon persuasion rather than coercion, and on the consideration of the characteristics and possibilities of the offender rather than the legal classification of the offence. This revolutionary concept has now been incorporated in the legislation of practically all the States, and in the decisions of the higher courts.

In 1930, however, the White House Conference on Child Health and Protection enumerated widespread inadequacies and failures, such as unnecessary arrests, detention in police stations and jails, juvenile courts presided over by poorly paid judges not qualified either by ability or experience to deal with children, poor probation service, and other absolutely essential resources lacking for study and treatment. Many courts were found to be little better than police courts.

The studies of Prof. and Mrs. Glueck of 500 criminal careers and 1000 juvenile delinquents are quoted as showing that a great majority of the men whose cases were studied had shown open conflict with social authorities (school and police) at an early age, and that out of the 1000 juveniles who had come into contact with a certain outstanding Juvenile Court, all but a small minority had been again delinquent during the five year period following the termination of official treatment.

These findings are disturbing. Delinquency is not an isolated episode in the life of a child or an adult. It can only be understood, as Dr. Plant has so often pointed out, as insight is gained into the child's whole life from infancy up to the time when delinquency has become pronounced, and into the child's environment both present and past.

Communities cannot escape responsibility. The report of the Commission on the Causes of Crime for New York State says,—
“We have found that no unit causes crime and recommend no unit cures, but study and treatment of the individual as well as of the primary social group of which he is a functioning unit, family, gang, and neighbourhood, should be made.”

The attack on juvenile delinquency has been piecemeal. The police, whose original contact is most important, have been left outside. Too many judges trained in law are untrained in the study of human personality or social conditions. Probation standards are poor. Institutions are too often convenient places to hide problem children. Parole service is little understood. Social resources are curtailed when stress and strain in poverty-stricken homes and insecurity as to employment or vocational advancement are acute.

Miss Lenroot points to some of the ways out:—

1. Economic security is basic in attempts to deal with delinquency.
2. Assistance must be given to parents in dealing with problem children.
3. Community conditions and activities must be made more wholesome.
4. Responsibility for treatment must be in the hands of those best equipped through training and experience.
5. Those dealing with delinquents must at all times be aware of the needs of the individual child, and ever keep in mind that procedure and method are only a means for meeting those needs.

THE ORGANIZATION OF SOCIAL SERVICE IN CONNECTION WITH STATE INSTITUTIONS is dealt with by Miss Rose J. McHugh, Asst. Commissioner, N.Y. State Dept. of Social Welfare.

Miss McHugh states that “few institutions have as yet recognized the primary needs for children are for treatment and training in social living. We have in institutions a co-operative association of many disciplines, the relationship to these of the social services—case work, group-work, and community organization is a subject that has been given insufficient consideration.”

She asks, “Have institutions a clear conception of the goals of their program? Do they control intake? Are the principles of the application of such professional techniques as social case work and group work reasonably understood? To all of these questions those who know the work in our institutions must answer, “No”. The delinquency field is still dominated by attitudes of punish-

ment, discipline, custodial care, restriction of freedom. Institutions have been expected to accomplish what other agencies failed to do. They have been used as a last resort. Recently, however, certain aspects of the relationships between institutions and other community resources for the treatment of delinquency to economic and social conditions and "understanding the delinquent" have been considered.

The institution is no longer regarded as a "controlled environment" wherein certain procedures are expected to produce somewhat uniform results. Social case work and psychiatry have shown us that the child in the institution is living within his own mental environment in much the same manner as he did in the community, and that programmes, techniques, or devices, do *not* function automatically. The value of each of these mechanisms has individual meaning for every child.

What can we expect from institutions? We ask them to develop capacity for self-direction in children who have demonstrated their lack of ability. They have resisted social pressure, broken through discipline and made unwise choices. Institutions are geared to increase pressure, tighten discipline, reduce freedom and opportunity for personal choice. There is in any institutional programme a limitation that affects its influence on personality and circumscribes it generally. Institutions are not yet aware of the professional implications of entrusting highly intensified skills to untrained persons. We have been more concerned about money costs than human values. We have not been skilful in interpreting to children the therapeutical effect of labour and the sharing of tasks that are necessary to orderly living.

Miss McHugh recommends:

1. That a more flexible policy between the courts and the institution on intake would reduce the number of committals.
2. That close relationship be maintained between the institution and the community.
3. That integration of the specialized services be organized so that clinical study and treatment for each child will be a unified and continuous process.
4. The institution must push back on to the community the problems that definitely arise out of social and economic deprivation.
5. Extension of facilities for boarding care.
6. Greater freedom in short time treatment, and more intensive use of group work.

THE FUNCTIONS OF PSYCHIATRY IN A TRAINING SCHOOL FOR JUVENILE DELINQUENTS are enumerated by Clarence O. Cheney, M.D., Director, New York State Psychiatric Institute and Hospital, Professor of Psychiatry, Columbia University, and Consulting Psychiatrist, New York State Training School for Boys, Warwick, N.Y.

He states that the objects and functions of a training school should include every reasonable method to understand the boys sent to them, and to train them in every reasonable way so they will eventually return to society, good citizens.

Psychiatry has been accustomed to making careful studies of its individual patients, especially from the standpoint of their personality, their assets and liabilities, and has formulated a plan of treatment on the facts obtained with a view to eventually rehabilitating or re-training that individual and returning him to the community. For 80 years the institutions for mental patients in the State of New York have been administered by psychiatrists. This work has proved satisfactory; why should it not prove helpful in training schools doing similar work?

Psychiatry in institutions, says Dr. Cheney, has been hampered by lay administrators, and the value of its work has been misunderstood by untrained staff generally employed in penal institutions. He recommends the appointment of a psychiatrist to all training schools for boys, either as head of the institution or as a staff member who shall have power to see that his recommendations are carried out. He outlines his functions as follows:—

1. He shall assemble all that can be learned about each boy, from home background to physical and mental examination.
2. He should have a responsibility in the determination of the activities of the institution in which the boy should take part, i.e., the type of educational activity, trade education or other labour group.
3. He should confer with the staff and advise on treatment.
4. He should help in the selection of the staff, their previous training, their emotional reaction, and their general attitude towards the boys.
5. He can help direct the moral, religious, and educational activities.
6. He can help in the matter of discipline.
7. He may direct treatment in psychotherapy with individual boys.

8. Being acquainted with the boy's complete environmental and emotional background, he should advise regarding the boy's possible response to institutional training, or the prospects of further betterment by such training.

9. He should co-operate with and be ready to advise Parole Board and Social workers.

THE FUNCTION OF A PSYCHIATRIC CLINIC IN A SCHOOL FOR JUVENILE DELINQUENTS is discussed by Dr. Eric Kent Clark Director, Division of Psychiatry, University of Rochester.

Psychiatry in a correctional school for juvenile delinquency is still in a pioneering stage. Comparatively little alteration of the rate of cures or of the methods of treatment has been made. The movement has not had a sufficient period of demonstration to evaluate its techniques, to establish its successes, or to eliminate its weaknesses. In practically all of the State institutions the psychiatric clinic has been forced to develop as a superimposed structure on an organization that has been functioning for a considerable period without a clinic.

A clinic within an institution has four main functions; these can be listed in the order of their importance according to our experience:—

a. Education of Staff. Experience has taught us that within the institution this is essential; fundamental. Without the support and assistance of the whole staff from the highest administrative officer to the newest employee, the psychiatric clinic can do nothing. The help that the individual might receive from the clinic might be entirely destroyed by members of the staff who are without any conception of mental hygiene principles. Discussions with individuals of specific problem cases have proved to be the most profitable approach. While this is painfully slow, in the end it will be more valuable, especially with a staff who have been in correctional work for a long period. The disregard of the lack of background of mental hygiene in the rank and file of the staff is one of the things that has retarded the progress of psychiatry in a correctional institution. Our original approach emphasizing the work with individual boys proved unproductive until the education of the staff through personal contact was started.

b. Classification of Population. A scientific classification in an institution is essential before satisfactory work with individuals can be undertaken. Disregard of an individual's potentialities, previous training and interest, and enforced application to a programme that is monotonous, without stimulation and challenge, not only fails to rehabilitate, but usually actively develops a stronger

anti-social tendency than already existed on his arrival at the institution. The correctional school should be fundamentally educational, designed to train the potentialities of each individual and to equip him to become a productive member of society if he so desires. And if he does not so desire, it should attempt to change his desire. The educational facilities of most correctional schools fail to measure up to requirements because they are inadequate, inferior to the standards of the community and poorly equipped. Again a boy who proves a success in one department of an institution is apt to be retained there because he is useful in keeping up maintenance, and his real educational needs are lost track of easily. A proper system of classification that takes into account the boy's educational background and requirements, his intellectual endowments and potentialities, his physical condition, his personality make-up, together with his social history and experience, allows the planning of a constructive institutional programme that will not only stimulate an interest in the boy to derive training that will be of value, but will eliminate, by supplying active interests, the dwelling on the hardships which society has heaped upon him. Punitive incarceration has proved to be a miserable failure.

The psychiatric clinic must assume much of the responsibility of the individual studies upon which the classification system can be based, and act as a co-ordinating factor between the various departments which carry out the details of the programme.

c. Intensive psychotherapy with individual inmates. Little need be said about the need of psychiatric assistance to the individual; it is undoubtedly of the greatest assistance in his social re-establishment. It is unfortunate that so little can be undertaken thoroughly. Educational work with staff members, the routine examination of each new arrival for classification purposes, periodic review of cases, the final study before preliminary consideration for parole, the final review of each case with the parole officer—who must interpret the boy and his needs to the community—together with the study of severe discipline problems within the school, and the re-study of boys who are making a poor adjustment to the program, consume so much time that without a large and adequate clinic personnel, intensive study must be restricted. When this is attempted, the results in many instances more than justify the time spent.

d. Research. Research will ultimately prove to be the most valuable approach to the entire field of delinquency. Research cannot be mixed with service, for the pressure of the latter invariably eliminates the continuity of the former. A separate

staff entirely free from service duties is called for, which will yet be allied to the service unit sufficiently that the human element may be kept in sight and prevent the study from becoming mere statistical analysis of unrelated facts. The state for years to come can take but little responsibility for the development of even sufficient service, hence research must come through channels that are independently financed.

THE PRACTICE OF PSYCHIATRY IN AN INSTITUTION FOR DELINQUENTS— by Max Winsor, A.M., M.D.

The recent years of dis-illusionment as to the effectiveness of our penal systems have been marked increasingly by an entrance of psychiatry into these institutions. Hence, says Dr. Winsor, there has been a good deal of criticism of psychiatry and many questions as to its value. The mere presence of a psychiatrist in an institution, however, is no guarantee of the effectiveness of his work. Some clinics working within institutions have met with marked resistance on the part of the staff; have reported institutions blind to their own shortcomings and without any coherent or consistent policy for a child guidance programme. At least it is now realized that there is no magic in psychiatry, but popular demand has resulted in its inclusion in the training program of numbers of schools that are named, and its real potentialities are being recognized. Relative ineffectiveness in many places resulted because its energy was dissipated, or because concentration on diagnosis left no time for treatment. The application of psychiatry to penal institutions should follow the same pattern as its use in psychiatric hospitals, study, diagnosis and treatment, or as Cheney is quoted as saying " . . . a psychiatric pervasion throughout the whole institution is to be advocated." Since in a populous institution a psychiatrist could at best give intensive attention to but an exceedingly small percent of the inmates, at the present stage the first requirement of psychiatry is leadership in establishing a treatment programme that shall permeate the entire institution. We agree with Stearns that leadership in penology may well come from a number of disciplines, such as education, sociology, psychology, and social service, as well as psychiatry. The place of the psychiatrist in the institution will regulate his practice; however, the latter should not be allowed to lapse due to pressure of business administration; a first rate clinical director will be of more value to an institution than an excellent business executive.

We may note that treatment for crime may well become as complex as its causation, and modern institutional facilities must be developed to discover the problems presented and to permit adequate treatment. We suggest that the psychiatrist be given a

prominent role in the integration of these complex units of diagnosis and treatment; he must teach the institution that its every aspect makes or breaks treatment.

A striking difference exists between the hospital for mental patients and an institution for delinquents; in the former each inmate is in charge of some one physician who is responsible for his treatment and continuous progress record; in the latter there is usually no "treatment" that could be recognized as such, the main concern being merely to prevent escape and maintain discipline. And how many wardens avail themselves of the case studies even where such do exist?

If the psychiatrist could only teach the institution how to gather and use case records as they are used in a psychiatric institution he would do a great service. Functioning through the staff in this way, one specialist could mean far more to the institution than if he were attempting to do the detail work himself; certain cases which he did deal with directly could be used for demonstration purposes.

FUTURE DEVELOPMENTS IN INSTITUTIONAL LIFE — Chas. Schroedel, Asst. Supt., New York State Training School for Boys.

Institutional treatment is unnatural because of its necessary regimentation, its demand that programme activities be done at programme times, regardless of the mood of the individual, the exceedingly limited time that can be spent in personal work with the individual after the daily routine of meals and work, etc., has been gone through, the lack of opportunity for choice or individuality in appearance or activity, and the inevitable mixing or forcing together of opposing types.

A future possibility as an alternative is seen in the development of district cottage homes, permitting smaller groups without institutional pressure, increased prestige in social standing, active contact with home supervisor, possibility of parental contacts and assistance with problem boys, and the separate grading and grouping that would be possible.

INSTITUTIONAL PLACEMENT AND THE PROBLEM CHILD — Gertrude Marron, Chicago Probation Project, Children's Bureau, U.S. Dept. of Labor.

Institutional placement although theoretically a treatment project is of ten merely used to relieve the community or to take care of the child's physical needs. Society however admits its own failure and inability when it places the burden of problem children upon the institution.

An institution may mean different things to different children; to one, an opportunity to mingle with the "big shots", to another, a longed-for chance to learn a useful vocation; for some, security, for others, deprivation. Are institutions sensitive to these varying attitudes, and do they attempt to meet the different needs based upon these attitudes? Does the institution realize that however anti-social it may be, the child's behavior is satisfying to him, and hence not easily relinquished? That certain behavior indicates an unsatisfied need?

To what extent is the institution as a controlled environment able to meet the needs not previously satisfied by home, school, church, playgrounds or community activities? The institution may be in a position to establish new behaviour patterns, but opportunity for experience within it is so limited that we cannot be certain that such new habits will survive the more complex community situation upon release, unless there has been a definite change in the community or the child's attitude towards it. The institution may merely lull the child into a false sense of economic security instead of making him the more capable to face the conditions existing on the outside. Vocational training may be planned more by the needs of the institution or to follow an inflexible curriculum rather than decided by the interests and abilities of the child.

Does the child make stabilizing friendships in the institution, or merely contacts that will continue with those who outside were "bad companions"? The group activities of an institution again may mitigate against the individual initiative and action that is required later.

The child upon release needs interpreting to the community, as well as the community to him; should the child be stigmatized because of the community's failure to provide for his adequate upbringing? Yet so often this is the case. Although such institutional isolation is yet necessary at times, it should be looked upon as only part of a treatment plan which begins before and should be continued after the institutional care is over.

*THE CALL FOR A PLANNED ATTACK ON DELINQUENCY—*by Dr. Sheldon Glueck, Prof. of Criminology, Harvard Law School.

Our treatment of the criminal and delinquent has been woefully piecemeal, says Dr. Glueck. Fundamental replanning of the entire "system" of criminal justice—so largely unsystematic—is called for. The juvenile court, however "humane" it may be, is dependent upon all the other various social agencies for its effectiveness; the "hearing" is only the beginning of what should be an intelligently planned and integrated process.

Why should the court, for instance, have control over probation, yet have no say regarding institutions or parole? Treatment of adult criminals is similarly disconnected and illogical; indeterminate sentences are supposed to run until the offender is "cured", yet no one has yet devised any means of determining when the cure is effected.

We are beginning to realize that no forward-looking method of treatment functions by itself—that all are dependent in varying degrees upon the collaboration of other social institutions. To recognize this and to do something constructive about it is the great task awaiting workers in the peno-correctional field. Intelligent planning should be applied to this just as it is being applied to the economic field.

Let us end the situation where every police chief, prosecutor, judge, penal administrator, parole board member, is inclined to regard his job as an end in itself unrelated to the others. Social planning is a *sine qua non* to that "socialization" of delinquents and criminals that we are all seeking.

THE ADMINISTRATION OF A TRAINING SCHOOL FOR DELINQUENTS—by Jas. S. Owens, Supt. of State Agricultural and Industrial School, Industry, N.Y.

Institutions for delinquent children have too often functioned in isolation; their inmates have little to show after, but a period of custodial care, and the purposes of the institutions are largely defeated through their own deficiencies in facing their own problems.

There is no one particular cause for delinquency, and in any delinquent group will be found cases from the widest possible range of causative factors. In general the inmate has been unable to make natural adjustments to his environment, he has found himself outstanding from his group in an unpleasant manner and his reaction to this has resulted in anti-social conduct.

It is in their failure to be attuned to the inmate's own reactions to his "differentness" that institutions seem most frequently to have missed their opportunities. Disciplinary treatment and regimentation are direct and simple; the thorough exploration of the total entity of a human being as a result of his whole past experience, to synthesize completely and understandingly, is involved, expensive and difficult, but by no means impossible. It does however require an understanding that an institution with every available modern facility is relatively useless unless there is co ordination of all energies to a common and specifically accepted end.

The first contact of the child with the institution is of the utmost importance; the initial interview, with a member of the social work staff, should seek to interpret the institution to the child and prepare him and enlist his cooperation for the analytic interviews and treatment methods to follow by giving him an insight into and sympathetic understanding of fundamental human needs in terms that are meaningful and acceptable. This, with the court case history, will start the institutional case record, which should emphasize individual differences, and the substance of its continued cohesive growth will be a chronographic record of the efficiency or inadequacy of methods or staff concerned.

The quarantine period after admission that means nothing more than a protective health measure is pathetically restricted. To interest, to disarm, to impress, and to sow the seeds for deeper and ripper understanding between the child and the institution and its personnel should be the broader purposes of the quarantine period.

The cottage system as conceived in theory and as developed in practice have unfortunately but little in common; poor salaries and low qualifications, and the daily routine of household and culinary duties usually specified have not brought to the important positions of cottage parents those most capable of understanding or influencing human behavior, nor is it to be expected that people selected for their ability to satisfy the practical requirements of cottage house-keeping can upon an instant's notice assume an entirely different role and offer wise counsel, supervise recreation, and contribute the security of affection and understanding to their charges. It may become necessary to delegate this further responsibility to more highly trained members of the staff.

Again there seems room for serious question whether the cottage system as currently administered meets the needs of the older group of boys. Many of these have become involved in difficulty directly or indirectly as a result of conflict with the natural authority of their own parents, hence we may logically ask if they will react favourably in groups to the authority of "artificial" parents. There is great room for experimentation here and great necessity for improvement in our common practices.

The educational aspect of institutional life should be conceived as being a preparation for living and the equipping of the individual for a fresh start in life. It should be personalized as far as possible as to its meaning to every inmate. A broader, more attention compelling and more pupil-conscious system than any the child has ever known must be its ultimate goal.

"Vocational Training" often implies nothing more than the use of the children as a cheap form of institutional labour which

degenerates into a drudgery that contributes little or nothing towards their social development. The very few who later follow their institutional trades would suggest teaching general skills rather than particular trades of doubtful later value. The inmate's necessary contribution of healthy, useful work should be closely correlated as a phase of the general preparation for life outside the institution.

Recreation should be conducted from the standpoint of general participation rather than the winning of trophies or the development of outstanding athletes.

The social service department will have been carefully adding to its case record against the day of parole, which is one of the most difficult steps in adjustment, and which will require much pre-parole preparation. However, the practice of paroling inmates because they have proved difficult problems within the training school cannot be too strongly condemned. But little can be expected of the sketchy and inadequate parole systems that exist today, but intelligent development is possible.

Staff conferences should be conducted at intervals and the entire group enlisted in the attainment of the institution's purposes. All should be acquainted with and understand proposed changes and be prepared to give them a fair trial. But little is gained from the children's confidence in the staff if it has not confidence in itself or its own leadership, nor can the finest possible equipment compensate for staff deficiencies.

Recognition should be made of the fact that training schools have been established for the social readjustment of problem children, and not for the custodial care of casual offenders who may actually be little in need of institutional treatment. The school's relationship to the Juvenile Courts should be cultivated so that the judges may thoroughly understand the institutional facilities and programme and be encouraged to look to the school for counsel and assistance in disposing of difficult cases. The sympathetic assistance of social agencies should be obtained, and the various centres should be made to realize that delinquency is a community problem and that most of the school's inmates will return to the districts from which they came.

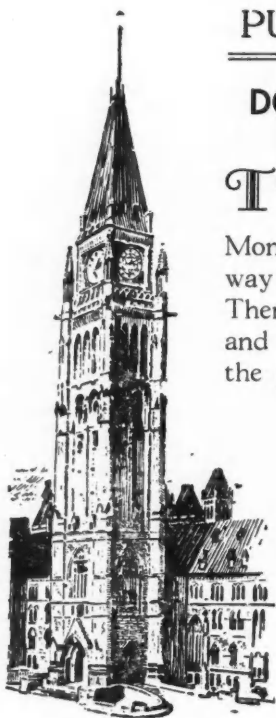
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NEW JUVENILE COURT APPOINTMENT

Judge M. I. Burgess, Juvenile Court, Court House, Regina, is the successor to Judge Ethel MacLachlan as Judge of the Juvenile Court in that district.

PUBLIC WELFARE SERVICES

DOMINION AND PROVINCES TALK RELIEF AND OTHER PROBLEMS



THE eighth Dominion-provincial conference since Confederation opened in Ottawa, on Monday, December 9th, 1935, in the great Railway Committee Room of the House of Commons. There were present the Prime Minister of Canada and the members of the Dominion Cabinet, and the premiers of all nine provinces, backed by a phalanx of provincial ministers and technical advisers from the civil services. Only this inaugural plenary session was open to the press, all subsequent meetings of the Conference and its committees being in camera, with formal summaries given to the public.

The Conference divided into six committees, which met during the week, and whose reports became the basis of the resolutions, received by the closing plenary session, which, defying superstition, met and adjourned on Friday, December 13th.

The Conference Committees corresponded with the items on the agenda,—Unemployment, Relief and Social Services; Constitutional Amendments; Agriculture and Marketing of Farm Products; Mining and Mining Taxation; Tourist Traffic and Transportation; Financial Relations between the Dominion and the Provinces.

During the Conference, the Prime Minister and representatives of the provinces met a delegation of Dominion mayors, headed by Mayor Camilien Houde of Montreal, which presented the case for assumption of the burden of unemployment relief by the Dominion and provincial authorities on the ground of the inability of the municipalities to carry these mounting costs.

Nature of Conference

The Rt. Hon. Mr. Mackenzie King, in his closing address at the plenary session, emphasized the fact that the Dominion-provincial conference, like the Imperial Conference, had no executive authority and could only make recommendations. Executive action would remain for the Dominion Cabinet, so far as Federal action on the reports was concerned.

The Dominion-provincial conference, Mr. King pointed out, was the institution which enabled the representatives of the Dominion and Provincial Governments to confer together, exchange information and formulate proposals which would be presented to the Governments concerned.

Consequently, the resolutions based on the reports of the Committees were received only, not adopted, at the close of the Conference. The motion to receive, moved by a representative of the Province of Ontario, and seconded by the Premier of Quebec, was accepted unanimously. The Hon. Mr. Taschereau in seconding the motion stated that he had abandoned his traditional stand against amendments to the British North America Act because he had been impressed by the fairness with which all governments of recent years had treated the constitutional rights of minorities.

The resolutions of the Conference, it was stated, would be "submitted to the appropriate authorities as a foundation upon which the governments concerned would base their future policy."

Of particular relevance to problems in the field of social welfare were the resolutions bearing on amendments to the British North America Act, and to employment, and relief, as well as the intimation, given at the close of the Conference, that relief grants in aid to the provinces would be increased.

"Amending the B.N.A. Act"

The British North America Act being a statute of the British Parliament, as matters stand now, can be amended only by the British Parliament. It defines the respective powers of the Parliament of Canada and the legislatures of the provinces.

When the autonomy of the Dominions in the British Empire was recognized at the 1926 Imperial Conference steps were inaugurated to give effect to it by an act of the British Parliament. Terms of this act were agreed upon at the 1930 Imperial Conference.

The Provinces of Ontario and Quebec joined in submitting an objection against any change in Empire relations which would alter the method by which amendments to the B. N. A. could be effected and asserting the right of the provinces to be consulted in any constitutional change.

The new Empire constitutional structure found expression in the Statute of Westminster, which, while conferring on other Dominions the right to amend their constitutions made an exception in the case of Canada and left the position as it had stood since Confederation.

The decision arrived at by the conference was that the B. N. A. Act stood in need of amendments now and might need further

amendments in future and that Canada, like other dominions, should have the right to enact the amendments without recourse to the British Parliament.

The resolution on constitutional amendment was adopted by the committee by a vote of nine to one, a negative vote being cast by Hon. J. B. McNair, Attorney General of New Brunswick. An official statement said Mr. McNair was unable to agree with the resolution in its entirety.

Hon. Ernest Lapointe, Minister of Justice, was instructed to convene a committee of legal representatives of all the provinces to prepare a recommendation to the Dominion Parliament for an Imperial statute giving Canada the power to amend the constitution.

It is to be observed that this Committee is not instructed to prepare amendments to the British North America Act *per se*, but to prepare a recommendation for ultimate submission to the Imperial Parliament for a statute giving Canada the right to amend that Act.

Financial Co-operation

Amendment of the British North America Act was also foreshadowed to define clearly provincial taxation fields. A continuing committee of provincial treasurers and the Minister of Finance will meet before Parliament and the legislatures open to complete discussion of such subjects as debt refunding, a loan council, duplicate taxes, unified tax collection, etc. The committee agreed that where the Dominion and provinces impose the same type of taxation there should be co-operation in administration.

Unemployment

It was decided to increase the Dominion relief contributions to the provinces, and to take a census, perhaps in February, of unemployed and unemployables.

A Dominion unemployment commission will be established to supervise and co-ordinate relief administration.

Also, of possible interest in a works and employment programme was the decision of the Dominion and provincial governments to assume "fifty-fifty" all trans-Canada Highway costs, and the costs of roads, especially designated as "feeder" roads.

C. W.

INCREASED RELIEF GRANTS

THE week following the adjournment of the Dominion-provincial Conference, the Rt. Hon. the Prime Minister announced substantially increased grants in aid for direct relief from the federal to the provincial governments, retro-active from December 1, 1935, and extending to April 1, 1936. The monthly aggregate of grants was increased from \$1,751,250.00 to \$3,064,687.50. In announcing these increases, Mr. King emphasized the fact that at the Conference all the nine provinces had agreed to the appointment of a national commission on employment and relief on the distinct understanding that the provinces and municipalities would submit to careful and complete supervision of all relief expenditures by this new commission. This commission will be named in January, it was announced, with wide powers in an effort to eliminate any laxity in administration or abuses in the relief system. This commission will also seek to find ways to increase employment throughout Canada.

"These exceptional grants are being made in view of the critical relief situation as interim assistance for the winter months pending further action by Parliament," Mr. King stated. "They constitute recognition by the federal government of the fact that unemployment and relief have grown to be a national problem. We have tried to be careful of the public treasury, but, while the responsibility remains with the provinces and the municipalities, additional assistance to the provinces was necessary so that they could lighten the burden of the municipalities."

The New Grants

The increase amounts to a 75 per cent upward grant for these four months, distributed as follows :

Province	Monthly Grant Apr. to Dec.	Monthly Grant Dec. to March 31	Total Apr. to Dec. (8 months)	Total Dec. to March 31 (4 months)
Prince Edward Island..	\$ 1,250	\$ 2,187.50	\$ 10,000	\$ 8,750
Nova Scotia	40,000	70,000.00	320,000	280,000
New Brunswick	25,000	43,750.00	200,000	175,000
Quebec	500,000	875,000.00	4,000,000	3,500,000
Ontario	600,000	1,050,000.00	4,800,000	4,200,000
Manitoba	135,000	236,250.00	1,080,000	945,000
Saskatchewan	200,000	350,000.00	1,600,000	1,400,000
Alberta	100,000	175,000.00	800,000	700,000
British Columbia	150,000	262,500.00	1,200,000	1,050,000
	<u>1,751,250</u>	<u>3,064,687.50</u>	<u>14,010,000</u>	<u>12,258,750</u>

Prime Minister's Announcement

The Prime Minister's announcement of these increases closed: "As soon as possible following the establishment of a national commission on employment and relief the administration of relief will receive a thorough investigation in order to obtain a proper basis for future financial contributions and to eliminate any abuses which have developed either through negligence of officials or misrepresentation of relief applicants. Those entitled to relief need have no fear of this investigation. It is they indeed who have most to gain by the elimination of abuses. It is equally obvious that the taxpayers of Canada are vitally interested in the correction of laxity or abuses in relief administration whether as taxpayers they contribute to Dominion, provincial or municipal revenues. The immediate responsibility for the efficient administration of unemployment relief rests upon the provinces and municipalities concerned. It cannot be urged too strongly that this responsibility must be faced courageously by all governmental agencies. It is obvious that state assistance for the unemployed essential to the welfare and morale of the population must be accompanied by that degree of governmental economy which is essential to the preservation of national credit."

C. W.

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PER CAPITA RELIEF COSTS, AUTUMN 1935

The per capita distribution of relief costs in the different provinces appeared in a news article in the Ottawa local press, following adjournment of the Dominion-Provincial Conference, as running in October, 1935, at :

Prince Edward Island.....	\$1.66
Nova Scotia.....	3.86
New Brunswick.....	3.15
Quebec.....	5.37
Ontario.....	7.56
Manitoba.....	7.25
Saskatchewan.....	5.60
Alberta.....	6.45
British Columbia.....	7.00
Dominion.....	6.39

ABOUT OUR RELIEF CAMPS

THE following recommendations in regard to relief camps were submitted by the Protestant Bureau of Homeless Men to the Montreal Unemployment Relief Commission in regard to relief camps in November, 1935.

"The chief purpose of the camps should be to rehabilitate a man in order that he might be better fitted to return to normal life and work as soon as possible.

"In keeping with the above purpose, the following suggestions are made:—

"Admission to the camps should be on a voluntary or selective basis.

"The office worker or so-called 'White Collar' man calls for special consideration in that his isolation in one of the camps removes him from local contacts and any chance of re-employment except in special cases. We strongly suggest that these men be carried on local relief lists, but that they be obliged to register at the local Government Employment office. Some of these men would be glad to go to a camp if they could be engaged for such work, clerical or supervisory for instance, and sent from Montreal to the camp job.

"Set up an employment service in each camp, maintaining close contacts with employers and the labour market. This would give the men in the camps the feeling that they are not forgotten or out of touch with possible employment. Such an arrangement as this would also go a long way towards reassuring the public at large that relief expenditures are justified in view of the fact that sufficient work is not available to provide work for all. It would also justify the statement that the average man on relief is willing to work if he gets a chance.

"At the present time the camps accept only men who are physically fit. This gives an advantage to the unfit in that they are allowed to remain in the city on relief. It would seem desirable to make some arrangement whereby men who are convalescing, or undernourished, or fit only for light work, could be accepted. Many would be benefitted by the regular life and good food of a camp.

"We hesitate to speak on the question of wages, realizing that if the rate is raised even slightly it will have a tendency to bring men from farms and other occupations. On the other hand if a man knew that after a certain length of time, or if he had good prospects of work and wanted to come to the city, a small amount, a kind of bonus would be available, it would greatly hearten him.

"The question of camp programmes—physical, social, educational, and moral—is one that calls for the fullest consideration, and one on which at the moment we are not prepared to speak. We would, however, welcome an opportunity to discuss this subject at a later date."

SOME NEW APPOINTMENTS IN BRITISH COLUMBIA

Dr. Davidson

Dr. G. F. Davidson, Superintendent of Welfare in the Provincial Secretary's Department of British Columbia, has resigned from his position to take over the post of Executive Director of the Vancouver Welfare Federation, succeeding Mr. J. H. T. Falk. Dr. Davidson took over his new duties in Vancouver on December first.

Dr. Davidson is a newcomer in the social welfare field, who has made a remarkable success in a very short time and has gained in British Columbia a host of friends and admirers. A few years ago he had no thought of welfare work, but was earnestly pursuing graduate studies with the idea of a university career in classics. After graduating from the University of British Columbia in 1928, where he had a brilliant undergraduate record, he did graduate work at Harvard University and gained his Ph.D. degree. There followed two years of graduate study in Europe on the Sheldon Travelling Fellowship. In 1933 he returned to British Columbia and came to the attention of Dr. G. M. Weir, then Professor of Education at the University of British Columbia. A short time later Dr. Weir found himself, as Provincial Secretary in the new Provincial Government, in need of a Superintendent of Welfare to take charge of the administration of mothers' pensions and child welfare work, and he picked Dr. Davidson as a likely young man to do it well.

At the time critics were not lacking who said that it was absurd to choose such an inexperienced man for the work. But Dr. Davidson's performance in the Department during the past eighteen months has confounded the critics and he leaves the Department with the respect and the admiration not only of professional social workers and government officials, but also of great numbers of lay people who came in contact with him. Those who know Dr. Davidson's capacity will look upon him as a worthy successor to Mr. Falk, who has built the foundations of an excellent welfare federation in Vancouver, and expect him in his new position to move forward rapidly in a social welfare career which has already had a brilliant beginning.

Mr. Creighton

Mr. J. H. Creighton, M.A., has been appointed as Superintendent of Welfare to succeed Dr. G. F. Davidson. While Mr. Creighton is new to the social welfare field, he has had a long experience in an allied profession and he comes to his new position with an excellent academic training.

He holds the Bachelor's and the Master's Degrees from the University of British Columbia, where he majored in economics and political science. He is also a graduate of the Provincial Normal School and the Teachers' Training Course of the University of British Columbia, and he has done graduate work at Columbia University in economics and vocational and educational guidance. Mr. Creighton's Master's thesis at the University of British Columbia has been published as a book entitled "Central Banking for Canada."

Mr. Creighton has had more than twelve years experience as a teacher in the British Columbia elementary and secondary schools. He has been a member of the executive of the British Columbia Teachers' Federation and President of the Provincial Secondary School Teachers' Association. During the last two years he has been Vice-principal of Point Grey Junior High School, Vancouver.

Miss Holland

Miss Laura Holland, C.B.E., R.R.C., has been appointed as Superintendent of Neglected Children, succeeding Dr. George F. Davidson. Previously the Children's Division of the Department of the Provincial Secretary was amalgamated with Mothers' Pensions administration under the Superintendent of Welfare. With the resignation of Dr. Davidson a change has been made and the Child Welfare Division now becomes a separate branch of the Department with Miss Holland, who was formerly Deputy Superintendent of Neglected Children, the active administrative head.

Miss Holland, since the establishment of the Welfare Field Service in the Provincial Secretary's Department last April, has also been acting as Supervisor of this service. She will continue to hold these two positions. Miss Holland has rendered invaluable service to the Department, both in connection with the Children's Division and the Welfare Field Service, and will be congratulated by her many friends in all parts of Canada who know her sterling qualities and her remarkable capacity.

Miss Harvey

Miss Isobel Harvey, formerly Assistant Deputy Superintendent of Neglected Children, has now been made Deputy Superintendent of Neglected Children and will continue to assist Miss Holland in the administration of the Child Welfare Division.

Miss Harvey, a graduate of the University of British Columbia in 1919, was a teacher of English at the University for some time, and then decided to enter social work via the social work course in the University of British Columbia. She joined the Provincial Government service in 1932 and last year was promoted to be Assistant Deputy Superintendent of Neglected Children.

H. M. CASSIDY.

NATIONAL FEDERATION of KINDERGARTEN NURSERY SCHOOL, and KINDERGARTEN-PRIMARY TEACHERS of CANADA

THE SIGNIFICANCE OF PLAY AT THE PRESCHOOL LEVEL

DOROTHY A. MILLICHAMP

St. George's School for Child Study, University of Toronto

ASK A neighbour why her two year old child is permitted to play for six of his ten waking hours and the reply will be somewhat as follows, "because he won't do anything else", or "because it keeps him out of my way", or simply "because he is only a baby". In every case the underlying attitude is the same. The play of the two year old and, in fact, that of the ten, twenty, forty and sixty year old is considered to be something of a human weakness indulged in early childhood and until the individual is ready for the more serious duties of existence. When this time comes, toys must be laid aside and they become, henceforward, one of the stolen pleasures of life. But is it not possible that this universal phenomenon which we call play has a more vital relationship to life and living; that it is, perhaps, a significant form of activity having an established place and a definite value for growth and development; that it may require as careful planning and as thoughtful direction as school work or as occupational training?

In order to answer such questions the first step in the investigation is, necessarily, to stop and to watch genuine play in operation. Supposing that an observer sets out to analyse the play of the two year old child, becomes fascinated and so continues through his third and fourth year, what is there to discover?

The most obvious characteristic of early play is its simple but strenuous nature. The two year old indulges over and over again in activities which have become second nature to the adult, walking, running, balancing and coordinated arm and leg movements. At three these gross activities are supplemented by more complex feats of skill, swinging, climbing and intricate locomotor activities involving pushing, pulling and propelling. Between three and four the child begins to concentrate upon and to experiment with the smaller muscles, to acquire coordination of eye and hand, of finger and thumb. By five the child appears ready and anxious to practise skills requiring precision and control, cutting, sewing, pasting. The details of such a developmental sequence have yet to be worked out. However, observation has made it obvious

that such a sequence is present and that achievement is necessary in any one stage before the subsequent stage can be mastered. In short, observation has proven that, in terms of physical development, play is a main avenue by which the infant progresses from random kicking and rolling to the physical adequacy necessary for controlling and making use of his world. Having made such a discovery it becomes obligatory that the child have play surroundings suitable* for each stage of development.

From the beginning the child will require considerable space as well as sufficient apparatus to stimulate a variety of activities, a jungle gym or slide, a packing box to climb in, blocks and boards to lift, a kiddy kar to propel and wagon to push and pull. Use of his hands may be initiated by the handling of simple materials, blocks, sand, snow, plasticine, clothes pegs, to be followed, as control is established, by scissors, paste, blunt needles and wool, beads and so on.

If the observer turns his attention from the physical to the mental aspects of development e.g. watches for the appearance of ideas and thoughts in the child's play, he will find that here again learning is in progress. Supposing, as before, that the child is playing as he should, one may watch him progress from the period when he repeats an act over and over for the sheer physical enjoyment he feels to the time when he plans his play and carries it out according to that plan. At first he digs for the sake of digging; later he digs to make a hole which he calls a tunnel. In other words, one observes physical activity and skills gradually coming under the control of ideas and reason. Play, then, may be considered as providing the means whereby the child practises thinking and so is prepared, in a general way, for those mental skills, reading, writing and arithmetic which must be mastered at a later date.

The types of toy which will best provide scope for thought are the simple raw materials previously mentioned (e.g. blocks, sand, paint, paste and paper, etc.). Playing with such materials the child is dependent on his own ingenuity and ideas to make them interesting; hence, he is, as it were, obligated to think. Furthermore, because they can be used in a variety of ways these materials stimulate change of idea and new interest. Constructive skills (cutting, modelling, carpentry, etc.) give opportunity for the more complex creative play of the four year old. To constructive materials should be added dolls and their accessories and other toys used in active imaginary games. Still another type of ideational activity may be instigated by the provision of picture

* A first consideration in choosing play equipment must, of course, be to avoid possible dangerous situations. It will be necessary in this respect to set up certain regulations as to the way particular toys are used.

and story books. These latter help the child to recall and hence to think about his own experiences as well as enlarging his stock of ideas.

Closely linked with the physical and mental achievement goes a third form of learning. A keen observer will notice that as the child plays he seems gradually to become aware of such characteristics of his toys as colour, shape, size, weight, that later he begins to make use of this knowledge in his projects and games and that finally he reproduces them in terms of pattern and design. Stages in this development are difficult to discern but at least it is obvious that the child makes his discoveries as he plays. He finds that the small block balances on the larger, that red and green produce an interesting contrast. This fact gives the observer a suggestion to guide his choice of play equipment for the development of sensory appreciation. Briefly, the child's play materials should, while fulfilling other requirements provide opportunity for a rich and varied sensory experience.

The observer may be inclined to stop here feeling that he has put his finger upon the main springs of play activity. However, if he will wait a little longer, directing his attention not so much to the achievement of the child as to the child himself, play will quite suddenly acquire a new significance. He will find that the child displays certain habits in his play activity which may be considered as part and parcel of his personality and that these habits change or become more permanently fixed as he grows older. Having discovered that play and personality development are intimately linked the observer will realize that it could not be otherwise. While the child is active he cannot but develop general habits of action. During his play a child may show intense interest or boredom, persistence or the reverse, spontaneity or dependence. These habits are no other than the basic work and play habits upon which depend the degree of achievement and of enjoyment which the child will reach both in the present and, to some extent at least, in his later work and play life.

What, the observer must ask himself, are the play habits possible and most desirable for the two, the three and the four year old? Spontaneity of action, that is, a keen desire to explore and to experiment are to be observed in all productive play, and underlie ability on the part of the child to keep himself busily occupied. As the child grows older one may expect to find him choosing his toys with discrimination and so developing definite interests. From the more or less sporadic turning of attention from one toy to another he should begin to direct his attention in a more methodical manner, going from one step to another toward

a final goal of achievement. He is learning the habit of being "interested" which is the basis of most of the really pleasurable occupations of adult life.

The longer the observer watches the more he will be impressed with the importance of this particular phase of development, for should the child's play lack such qualities, should boredom, disinterest and dependance develop, then practice and learning in the child's physical and mental life will be checked. Initiative, persistent endeavour, keen interest, on the other hand, ensure learning of many abilities and of many special skills.

Provision for personality development through play is the most difficult problem the observer has had to face. Supposing that he has been successful in equipping the child's play environment with material for his physical and mental development how is he to ensure interested activity? One phase of the play environment remains to be considered. The adult's role as supervisor. To what extent should she feature in the child's play? Certainly constant suggestion, stimulation, assistance at every point of difficulty, superimposing of adult standards, frequent and indiscriminate praise can result in only one thing, dependence and lack of self-sustaining interests. The adult must remain in the background attracting the child's attention as little as possible; she should be friendly, interested and helpful, but should allow the child to choose and to direct his own play activity within his play domain.

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THE CONFERENCE ON CHILDHOOD EDUCATION

The following is a summary of the Panel Discussion held at the Annual Conference on Childhood Education at Toronto on Saturday, October 26th, Kindergarten Department—Chairman, Miss Frida A. Kruse, Montreal.

Invited Panel: Miss Clara Brenton, London; Miss Alma Robb, Hamilton; Miss Mary Gibson, Toronto; Mrs. Claire Burke, Toronto; Miss Gertrude Eagleson, Toronto.

In introducing the topic, "The Place of Kindergarten in Modern Education", Miss Kruse stressed the thorough enjoyment of Kindergartners in their work and their ability to create an atmosphere of happiness and contentment. She also mentioned the relationship of Home, Nursery School and Kindergarten.

Miss M. Gibson spoke on the development of teaching methods in the Kindergarten and quoted from two educational experts, Miss Lucy Wheelock and Dr. Laura Zirbes, emphasizing the con-

ception of the learning process as Planning, Thinking, Doing. She showed in a practical way how this process may be carried out with the self-activity programme which has always been used in the Kindergarten and is permeating the school curriculum of to-day.

Miss Brenton spoke of the changes which are taking place to-day in the educational programme. She recommended for study "Children Who Cannot Read", by Monroe, and "Play In Education", by Lea.

Modern education introduces a programme based on experiences that are educationally valuable and socially significant. This replaces the curriculum based on tradition. "We learn to do by doing" is to-day accepted as a maxim.

Miss Robb placed emphasis on parent education and co-operation between home and school, and pointed out that the great necessity of to-day is to teach the child to live.

Mrs. Burke gave a splendid explanation of the child's place in the home and his introduction to school life through the Kindergarten. She spoke of the qualities we aim to develop in the child, viz. self control, fair play, leadership, service and co-operation, all of which are essential for good citizenship, emphasis being placed on ethics rather than results.

Miss Eagleson spoke on changing view-points of the Kindergarten. She recommended the wise use of progressive material as of greatest importance, reading to be taught only when the child has reached the mental age of six and a half years.

Miss Harvey spoke of the present needs of the child, emphasizing the point that basic principles are unchanging. Her discussion included the following subjects: language, investigation and discovery, child's need of beauty and happiness, play as a means of education, and social life.

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HAMILTON KINDERGARTNERS CELEBRATE JUBILEE

In Hamilton, Ontario, a very interesting event took place on November 15th, when the Kindergarten Teachers' Association celebrated its 50th Anniversary.

Miss Bertha Savage, who was first director of Kindergarten in Hamilton, was guest of honour. Mr. F. E. Pearney, Inspector of Schools, gave a short address on the great value of Kindergarten as an integral part of the public school system.

(Continued from inside front cover)

- No. 55. The Non-Academic Child.
No. 56. Protection Against Diphtheria.
No. 57. You Wanted to Know Something About the Canadian Council on Child and Family Welfare. (Published in French also). (English out of print).
No. 57A. The Canadian Council on Child and Family Welfare. (Revised edition (1934) of No. 57).
No. 58. Social Service Exchange.
No. 59. Relief and the Standard Budget.
No. 60. Helping People in Need. Record Form and Instructions. (designed for use in the present unemployment situation).
No. 61. Boys in Trouble.
No. 62. "In Times Like These" (Suggestions for the organization of community welfare and relief services).
Supplement A—The Actual Provision of Relief.
Supplement B—The Organization of Special Services for Problems of a Particular Type.
Supplement C—The Organization of Relief Work Programmes.
No. 63. The Visiting Housekeeper.
No. 64. The Central Bureau in the Catholic Welfare Programme.
No. 65. The Day Nursery in the Programme of Child Care.
No. 66. Sample Food Budgets and reprints of the Section on Menus and Budgets.
No. 67. Fair Time for the Nurse.
No. 68. Posture, Body mechanics.
No. 69. Ophthalmia Neonatorum. (Babies' Sore Eyes).
No. 70. The Bewildered Community To-day—Canada, 1934.
No. 71. The Cross-Eyed and Squinting Child.
No. 72. Infantile Paralysis.
No. 73. Welfare Legislation in Canada and Her Provinces, 1934.
No. 74. A Lay Man's Summary of The Employment and Social Insurance Act, Canada 1935. (10c.)
No. 75. Child Care Within the Institution—A Mental Hygiene Approach.
No. 76. Need Our Mothers Die?—A Study of Maternal Mortality in Canada.
No. 77. Respiratory Diseases in Young Children.

Supplement to "Child and Family Welfare":

Canadian Cavalcade 1920-1935. (15c.)

Reprints

- (1) Some Considerations re Health Insurance.
- (2) Some Considerations re Unemployment Insurance.
- (3) Administration of Clothing Relief.
- (4) Activities of the Department of Public Welfare, Toronto.
- (5) Child Protection in England and Wales.
- (6) The Essentials of a Relief Programme for Canada.
- (7) Rental or Shelter Allowances.

L.T.A. Publ'ns No. 1-12. Recreation Bulletins dealing with various phases of recreation are available on request.

L. T. A. Publ'ns No. 13. Community Gardens.

Charts—(Wall Size)—

- No. 1. 7, 10, 14. Infant Mortality Rates in Sixty Canadian cities (Statistics 1924, 1925, 1926, 1928).
No. 9, 12, 16. Is your District Safe for Babies? (Rural Infant Mortality Rates, 1925, 1926, 1928).
No. 17A-B-C. Does Your City Lose Its Babies? Statistical Report of Infant Mortality in Cities of Canada. (Five Year comparison, 1925-30). 1932.
No. 2. 4, 11, 13. Why Our Babies Die. (Statistics, 1925, 1926, 1927, 1928).
No. 4. Illiteracy Breeds Illiteracy, 1921 Census.
No. 6. Child Placing is Child Saving.
No. 5. The Vicious Treadmill (Illiteracy in Cities—1921 Census).
No. 13. A Blot on the Map of Canada. (English and French)

*Posters (at cost)—No. 1. "The Gag Adventurers."

No. 4. "Baby's Stomach is Very Small."

No. 2. "The Protection of the Child." No. 5. "Have You a Clean Bill of Health?"

No. 3. "Every Canadian's Heritage." No. 6. "The Fridge Party."

No. 7. "The Sun Baby."

Pre-Natal Letters—(In English and French). A series of nine letters giving pre-natal help and advice (Free).

Post-Natal Letters—(In English and French)—A series of seventeen letters giving post-natal help and advice (Free).

Pre-School Letters—(In English)—Five series of 17 letters, covering the years from one to six in the child's life. Child Welfare Problems in Habit Formation and Training—(A series of six pamphlets). (Free).

Patterns—Layette Patterns and Patterns for Abdominal and Hose Supports. (At cost).

Diet Folders—Series 1, 2, 3, 4, 5—dealing with the child's diet from birth to school age. (At cost).

Health Record Forms—For the use of physicians, clinics, conferences, etc. (At cost).

Record Forms—(1) Child's History. (2) Family History. For the use of children's agencies, institutions, etc. (At cost). (3) Physical Record Forms for Institutions. (At cost).

Annually—Proceedings and Papers of the Annual Meeting and Conference.

Official Organ—"Child and Family Welfare," issued bi-monthly

* Posters—Out of Print.

Canadian Welfare Council

Founded in Ottawa, in 1926, as the result of a National Conference of Child Welfare Workers, convened by the Child Welfare Division, Federal Department of Health,
COUNCIL HOUSE, 345 COOPER ST., OTTAWA, CANADA.

OBJECT.

- (1) To create throughout the Dominions of Canada an informed public opinion on problems in the field of social welfare.
- (2) To assist in the promotion of standards and services which are based on scientific principles and which have been proved effective in practical experience.

METHODS.

- (1) The preparation and publication of literature, arrangement of lectures, addresses, radio and film material, etc., and general educational propaganda in social welfare.
- (2) Conferences. (3) Field Studies and Surveys. (4) Research.

MEMBERSHIP.

The membership shall be of two groups, organization and individual.

(1) Organization membership shall be open to any organization, institution or group having the program of Canadian Social Welfare wholly or in part included in their program, articles of incorporation, or other statement of incorporation.

(2) Individual membership shall be open to any individual interested in or engaged in Welfare work, upon payment of the fee, whether that individual is in work, under any government in Canada or not.

FEES.

1. National Organizations..... Annual Fee, \$5.00—Representatives: 3.
 2. Provincial Organizations..... Annual Fee, \$3.00—Representatives: 2.
 3. Municipal Organizations..... Annual Fee, \$1.00—Representatives: 1.
 4. Individual Members..... Annual Fee, \$1.00—Representatives: 1.
- In electing the Governing Board and the Executive, all members will be grouped according to their registration by the Treasurer.

Every member will receive a copy of the proceedings of the Annual Conference and such other publications as may be published from time to time.

BOARD OF GOVERNORS—Fourteenth Year, April 1st, 1938,—March 31st, 1939.

Division	I.—Maternal and Child Hygiene	Chairman—Dr. H. E. Young, Victoria.
		Vice-Chairman—Dr. J. Fenton Argue, Ottawa.
"	II.—Child Care and Protection	Chairman—Mr. Robt. E. Mills, Toronto.
		Vice-Chairman—Mr. E. H. Blois, Halifax.
"	III.—Family Welfare	Chairman—Mr. F. N. Stapleford, Toronto.
		Vice-Chairman—Miss Robena Morris, Toronto.
"	IV.—Community Organization	Chairman—Mr. J. H. T. Falk, Vancouver.
		Vice-Chairman—Dr. Helen R. Y. Reid, C.E.B., Montreal.
"	V.—Leisure Time and Educational Activities	Chairman—Capt. Wm. Bowie, Montreal.
		Vice-Chairman—Mrs. G. Cameron Parker, Toronto.
"	VI.—Delinquency Services	Chairman—Mr. H. Atkinson, Portage la Prairie, Man.
		Vice-Chairman—Judge H. S. Mott, Toronto.
"	VII.—Officials in Public Welfare Administration	Chairman—Mr. A. W. Lever, Toronto.
		Vice-Chairman—Mr. A. Chevalier, Montreal.
"	VIII.—French-speaking Services	Chairman—Col. L. R. LaFleche, Ottawa.
		Vice-Chairman—Madame Jules Tessier, O.B.E., Quebec.

Governors representing National Agencies in

Membership.

Mr. Tom Moore, Ottawa.
Mrs. C. H. Thorburn, O.B.E., Ottawa.
Mr. A. J. Freiman, Ottawa.

Governors representing Finance and General

Interests.

Mr. J. Fred Davey, Ottawa.
Mr. John T. Hackett, K.C., Montreal.
Mr. Philip Fisher, Montreal.
Mr. J. M. Macdonnell, Toronto.
Mr. John B. Laidlaw, Toronto.
Mr. A. J. Milner, Toronto.
Dr. Charles Morse, K.C., Ottawa.
Mr. F. E. Bronson, Ottawa.
Mr. James A. Richardson, Winnipeg.
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Mr. C. L. Burton, Toronto.
Mr. W. McL. Clarke, Montreal.
Mr. J. D. McKeena, Saint John.
Mr. C. S. MacDonald, Toronto.

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The Hon. J. D. Hyndman, Ottawa.
Senator the Hon. Raoul Dandurand, Montreal.
C. A. Seguin, K.C., Ottawa.
Judge P. A. Choquette, Quebec.
C. V. McArthur, K.C., B.A., LL.B., Winnipeg.

Executive Director

Miss Charlotte Whitten, C.B.E., M.A.

